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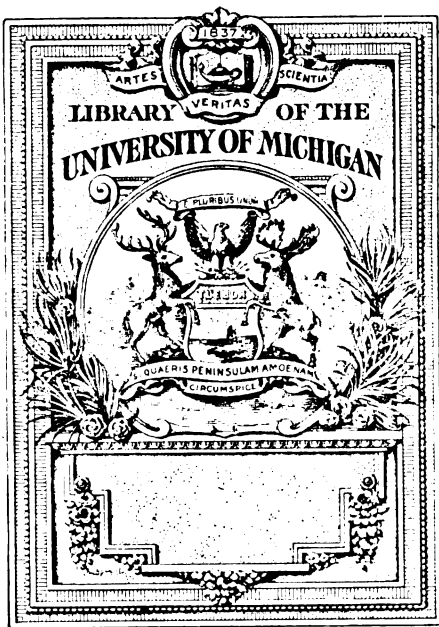
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*A Sharp Book*

THE

AMERICAN

MONTHLY REVIEW.

VOLUME I.

JANUARY—JUNE, 1832.

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CAMBRIDGE:

HILLIARD AND BROWN,

BOOKSELLERS TO THE UNIVERSITY.

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1832.

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Printers to the University.



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# BOOKS

LATELY PUBLISHED BY

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CAMBRIDGE.

**THE LIGHT OF NATURE PURSUED**, BY ABRAHAM TUCKER, Esq.; with a Life of the Author, by Sir H. P. St. JOHN MILD MAY, Bart. M. P. From the Second London Edition.

Price, neatly bound in full cloth £10. The two last copies of the London edition sold by auction in Boston, brought, the one £35, and the other £43-50.

"Whoever is desirous of studying the science of morals thoroughly, will do well to consult Tucker's *Light of Nature*, a work which, after much consideration, I think myself authorized to call the most original and profound that has ever appeared on Moral Philosophy," — *Sir James Mackintosh on the Study of the Law of Nature and Nations*.

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"Philosophy in the passages just now quoted [Tucker's Chapter on General Good] is brought within the reach of common sense, and is more skilfully applied to the duties of common life, than by any of the writers on universal benevolence with whom it has been my fortune to meet." — *Dr. Parr. Notes to Spital Sermon*.

"From dazzling coruscation of paradox, which will only lead him into error, into singularity, or into artificial sensibility, let me turn his attention to that pure and steady light which has been thrown upon moral truth by Abraham Tucker, Dr. Hartley, Paley, Stuart, Taylor, Cudworth, Barrow, Butler, &c. — *Dr. Parr. Notes to Spital Sermon*.

"There is one work to which I owe so much, that it would be ungrateful not to confess the obligation; I mean the writings of the late Abraham Tucker, Esq., parts of which were published by himself, and the remainder since his death, under the title of '*The Light of Nature Pursued*, by Edward Search, Esq.' I have found in this writer more original thinking and observation upon the several subjects that he has taken in hand than in any other, not to say in all others put together. His talent also for illustration is unrivalled." — *Paley*.

"We welcome the first American edition of this curious, entertaining, and, in many respects, valuable work, [Tucker's *Light of Nature*.] The author's acknowledged ability, the wide range given to his thoughts, the interesting and practical character of many of his topics, and the sprightliness and broad humor which pervade his speculations even on topics the driest and most abstruse, make it difficult to account for the fact, that he has not been more generally known and read." — *Christian Examiner* for January, 1832.

**THE WORKS OF JOSEPH BUTLER, LL. D.**, late Lord Bishop of Durham. To which is prefixed a **LIFE** of the Author, by Dr. KIPPIS; with a Preface, giving some Account of his Character and Writings, by SAMUEL HALIFAX, D. D., late Lord Bishop of Gloucester. In 2 vols. 12mo. Neatly and correctly printed from the last Edinburgh Edition, in 2 vols. 8vo.

THE  
LIBRARY  
OF THE  
OLD ENGLISH PROSE WRITERS.

Out of the olde fieldes as men saith,  
Cometh all this newe corn fro yere to yere;  
And out of olde bookes, in good faith,  
Cometh all this nowe science that men lere. — *Chaucer.*

This Work is edited by the Rev. ALEXANDER YOUNG, of Boston. It is beautifully printed in 16mo. volumes of 336 pages, and a volume is issued every three months. Some idea of the character of the work may be gathered from the following extracts from the

EDITOR'S PREFACE.

"The present volume is published as a specimen of a proposed Library of the Old English Prose Writers. It has been thought, that the productions of these our literary forefathers, have, in this country at least, been suffered to remain too long neglected. Whilst the mutilated fragments of classical antiquity are gathered up and cherished with a religious zeal, and are made the subjects of a constant and careful study, it seems neither creditable nor grateful, that the beautiful and venerable remains of our own ancestral literature should repose on the shelves of public libraries, deposited in cumbrous volumes, in undisturbed security. In this age of books, when everybody is sipping of the shallow and oftentimes poisoned fountains of an ephemeral literature, how few are there that draw from the deep and healthful 'wells of English undefiled.' The moss has been suffered to creep over them, and hide their clear and sparkling waters from the general view.

"To uncover these wells, to bring out these relics from their tombs, is the design of this humble enterprise. The Editor has thought that he might perform a useful and acceptable service to the literary public, by divesting the patriarchs of our early literature of their cumbrous and repulsive attire, and arraying them in an agreeable and attractive garb. At present, from their scarcity and costliness, these writings are accessible only to the privileged few: he would make them accessible to all, believing that they need only to be known, in order to be appreciated and admired. If it may be done without presumption, he would adopt, with a little variation, the language of Dr. Johnson, in the Preface to his Dictionary: 'I shall not think my employment useless or ignoble, if by my assistance the community gain access to the propagators of knowledge and the teachers of truth; if my labors afford light to the repositories of science, and add celebrity to Bacon, to Milton, and to Boyle.'

"To give some general idea of the character of the proposed Library, it may be sufficient to mention, that besides the honored names just recited, and the equally familiar ones of Jeremy Taylor, Barrow, and South, it will contain specimens of such writers as Sir Thomas More, Bishop Latimer, Roger Ascham, Sir Philip Sidney, Sir Walter Raleigh, Robert Burton, Sir Thomas Overbury, John Selden, Bishop Hall, Sir Thomas Browne, Arthur Warwick, James Howell, Izaak Walton, Andrew Marvell, and Owen Felltham.

"The advice which Bishop Watson gives in reference to some of these old writers, may be safely extended to them all. 'Make them,' he says, 'your chief companions through life; let them be ever upon your table; and when you have an hour to spare, spend it upon them; and I will answer for their giving you entertainment and instruction as long as you live.'

## OLD ENGLISH PROSE WRITERS.

"Should this work meet with sufficient encouragement to authorize its continuance, the volumes will be issued as fast as they can be properly prepared and accurately printed. The pieces selected will be inserted entire, whenever this can be done consistently with the plan of the work. The original style and phraseology will be sacredly retained, but the orthography will be accommodated to the standard now in use. To each author will be prefixed some account of his life and writings; and whenever it is necessary, brief notes will be appended to explain obsolete words and illustrate obscure passages.

"The Editor wishes to have it distinctly understood that it is not designed to be a theological work. It is not interded exclusively or primarily for clergymen; but for the lovers of good learning generally. Some of the pieces to be incorporated in the series will doubtless be from the pens of the old English divines; but they will be inserted not because the authors of them were clergymen, but because they were among the most eloquent and beautiful writers in the language, and produced works that do not deserve to die. The Editor intends to draw freely from all the stores of old English prose, without reference to sect or profession. Not only the divine and the moralist, but the poet and the philosopher, the lawyer and the physician, the statesman and the warrior, will be laid under contribution to enhance the value and diversify the interest of the work.

"In reply to the question, which has more than once been asked, How many volumes will the Library consist of? the Editor can only say, that this a point which the public must decide. The work may be continued as long as the materials hold out, and the interest or patience of its patrons remains unexhausted. He may, however, be permitted to state, that it is his intention to issue first the writings of those authors whose merits are less generally known, but whose claims to a place in such a collection as this, are incontestable; as one great object of the work is "to remember the forgotten, and attend to the neglected." Still no piece will be inserted merely because it is old or unknown; none will be inserted that is barely tolerable, or whose merits are a subject of dispute or doubt; none in short will be admitted that has not passed the ordeal of a severe and independent criticism, and been crowned with the concurring approbation of ages."

"We welcome with much satisfaction the volume which has given occasion to our remarks. It is the first in a series intended to constitute a Library of the old English Prose Writers, set forth in the convenient and attractive form required by the taste of the times. Should the work be encouraged, as it ought to be, and as we trust it will be, the editor intends to proceed with the publication of the most interesting portions and the finest specimens of 'the patriarchs of our early literature.' We think that the editor, the Rev. Mr. Young, will render a valuable and thank-worthy service to the community in fulfilling this excellent design; and we have entire confidence in the skill, judgment, and good taste, with which the work will be conducted. We hope that a series of volumes, like the neat and beautiful one now before us, will do much to bring into general favor a class of writers who ought to be held in everlasting remembrance, but who now are in the hands of very few readers among us. The list given by Mr. Young of those from whom he purposed to make his selections, includes names that have long been venerable and dear to every one who loves to commune with exalted and strong minds. We trust that a literary undertaking so judiciously and well begun, will not fail for want of the patronage of our reading community. Should it proceed, as it has commenced, a set of volumes will appear, which will surely deserve and claim a place in the libraries of all who love the wisdom of 'olden time.' We wish to witness the prevalence of such a sound and just taste for the strong good sense, the exciting energy, and the intellectual riches of the older authors as shall take away all occasion for the complaint so beautifully expressed by Mr. Young, that the moss has been suffered to creep over 'the wells of English undefiled,' and hide their clear and sparkling waters from the general view." — *Christian Examiner* for September, 1831.

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"The first volume of the publication named at the head of this article contains an account of the life and writings of Thomas Fuller, and his 'Holy and Profane State.' It is published with great neatness, and in the most convenient shape; and in all respects gives ample assurance that this edition of the Old English Prose Writers is in the hands of an able editor and of enterprising publishers." — *American Monthly Review* for January, 1832.

"The first volume of the proposed work, to which we have called the attention of our readers, consists of selections from 'The Holy State' and 'The Profane State' of Fuller. This is a good beginning; for it would not be easy to find a better specimen of pleasant and acute wisdom, than is here presented. Fuller is an old and highly esteemed favorite with all, whose reading has been much among the writers of that period. He should be more generally known, and his good things should have a wider circulation. The most interesting of his works, if not the best in every respect, is the 'Holy and Profane State.'" — *Christian Examiner*.

"The work which we have selected as the subject of this review, is, perhaps, upon the whole, the best of Fuller's works; and certainly displays to better advantage than any, his original and vigorous powers of thinking. We do most seriously recommend this book to our readers, as a treasure of good sense, information, and entertainment." — *Retrospective Review*.

### VOL. II.

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#### SELDEN'S TABLE TALK.

"The 'Defence of Poesy' is a work of rare merit. It is a golden little volume, which the scholar may lay beneath his pillow, as Chrysostom did the works of Aristophanes. We recommend to our readers to purchase this 'sweet food of sweetly uttered knowledge.' It will be read with much delight by all who have a taste for the true beauties of poetry; and may go far to remove the prejudices of those who have not. As no 'Apologie for Poetrie' has appeared among us, we hope that Sir Philip Sidney's will be widely read and long remembered." — *North American Review* for January, 1832.

"It would be hardly fair, to select more from this little treatise, which every one will read; and we leave it with grateful remembrance of the author's wit and devotedness, of his animated and joyous descriptions, and of the beauties of language that are scattered over the whole.

"The remainder of the volume is taken up with John Selden's 'Table Talk,' a writer who flourished in the first half of the seventeenth century. The 'Table Talk' is a collection of remarks, &c. that fell from Selden in familiar conversation, and were preserved by his secretary. They have a marked character throughout. The wit and humor, sometimes a little homely and cynical, the strong sense, the sturdy independence, the easy use of learning, the knowledge of every thing that is going on, and a clear opinion about it, — these all belong to one and the same man." — *American Monthly Review* for January, 1832.

## OLD ENGLISH PROSE WRITERS.

"The 'Defence of Poesy' is the most elaborate of Sir Philip Sidney's prose compositions, and, in our opinion, by far the most able and finished of his works. We are not disposed to dissemble, that we have conceived from this admirable Essay a high idea of Sir Philip's talents. It is a masterly exposition of the subject." — *Southern Review*.

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### VOL. III.

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"I wonder and admire his entireness in every subject that is before him. He follows it, he never wanders from it, and he has no occasion to wander; for whatever happens to be the subject, he metamorphoses all nature into it. In the treatise on some urns dug up in Norfolk, how earthy, how redolent of graves and sepulchres is every line! You have now dark mould, now a thigh bone, now a skull, then a bit of a mouldered coffin, a fragment of an old tombstone with moss in its 'Hic Jacet,' a ghost, or a winding-sheet, or the echo of a funeral psalm wafted on a November wind; and the gayest thing you shall meet with shall be a silver nail or a gilt 'Anno Domini,' from a perished coffin-top." — *Jeremy Taylor*.

"But to come back to our Physician; truly, my lord, I must needs pay him, as a due, the acknowledging his pious discourses to be excellent and pathological ones, containing worthy motives to incite one to virtue, and to deter one from vice; thereby to gain heaven, and to avoid hell. Assuredly he is owner of a solid head, and of a strong, generous heart." — *Sir Kenelm Digby*.

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A  
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 OF THE  
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**ADVERTISEMENT, (FROM THE GRAMMAR.)**

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### AUTHOR'S ADVERTISEMENT.

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*Cambridge, 10 Nov. 1831.*

ANDREWS NORTON."

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*Harvard University, 10 Nov. 1831.*

J. G. PALFREY."

[Extract from a Letter of Professor Stuart.]

"Gentlemen, — It is a considerable number of years since I have read Le Clerc's '*Ars Critica*.' But I am well acquainted with the character, and with some of the writings of this author. I do not adopt, as you know, all his theological views; but as a rhetorician and master of the great principles of interpretation, I consider him as a writer of the very first rank, and well deserving the attentive study of every man, who intends to acquire an extensive knowledge of the theory of language and interpretation. Possibly, on reviewing his book, I might find some things with which I could not agree; but this does not hinder my commending the merits of it in general, which have so strongly impressed themselves upon my mind. I shall rejoice to see the book in an English dress, and in an acceptable form for critical readers. I wish success, therefore, to your labors with a view to its publication, and hope that it will be forth-coming from the press. It is impossible that those who may differ from Le Clerc in his theology, should not respect his talents and acquisitions, and prize the privilege of enjoying access to his views; particularly those on the subject of language and interpretation."

Your friend and obedient servant,  
*Andover, 7 Nov. 1831.*

MOSES STUART."

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## ADVERTISEMENT.

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THE Editor of the AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW had consulted a few friends before the proposals for the work were issued, who agreed with him in opinion, that a review, according to the plan proposed, was desirable. He has been highly gratified since, by the full approbation of his plan expressed by a number of literary gentlemen. This approbation was the more gratifying, because it came unasked for, and proceeded from those whose opinion could not be regarded with indifference by the Editor. He has been still further encouraged in his undertaking by the generous coöperation of several gentlemen, who sustain a prominent rank among the literary and scientific men of this vicinity, and who have contributed, or promised to contribute, to the work now commenced. It will always be the Editor's endeavour to procure the literary materials of the work from those, to whom the subjects of the books reviewed are familiar. While a less onerous labor will thus be sought for from the learned, who are exposed to so many urgent calls, the judgment pronounced from them will also be intrinsically valuable and deserving of confidence.

The plan originally proposed, of giving short accounts of the contents of books, and a fair estimate of their merits, without going at much length into the discussion of subjects, will continue to be pursued, as it is for the most part in the present number. Some subjects, however, from their novelty, or recent revival, or from being particularly interesting at the present time, may occasionally be treated at much greater length than others, and sometimes, it may be, when the reason is not very obvious. The length of the different articles will probably continue to be nearly as various as in the present number. The length, however, will not, it is presumed, be considered by the reader, as a test of the worth of any production in the opinion

of the reviewers. To mention one example, among others, in the present number ; the merits of Kater's and Lardner's *Mechanics*, a work contained in the American Library of Useful Knowledge, are weighed by a very few sound words from one who is not only competent to do this, but who, on such a subject, could not mistake. It was thought unnecessary to pursue the subject in detail ; and hence it is despatched in half a page. But again, there are subjects, like those adverted to above, such, for instance, as the history of one of our oldest colleges, which demand much more space.

Our periodical publications in this part of the country have sometimes been complained of at a distance, as being of too local a character. It is a complaint from which the editor of this work and his coadjutors cannot expect wholly to escape ; but so far as books published at a distance shall be seasonably procured, attention to them will not be postponed through any favoritism or local preference of the editor.

Though the business of sole editor of a periodical work is new to the conductor of this Review, yet he has not been a mere looker-on. He has contributed his share, humble, it may be, in kind, though not in amount, to a great part of the most important publications of this class, in his neighbourhood, for more than five and twenty years. He has enlisted in some of them when they were young and laboring for existence ; and has been gladdened when any of them came to a vigorous growth, and successful career, and rewarded the anxiety and toils of those who afforded them nutriment and succour. With such experience he cannot be ignorant of the difficulties of his undertaking ; while at the same time it is impossible for him to distrust, since he has scarcely ever had reason so to do, the generosity of men of letters and science, or to doubt the increasing sympathy of the public at large in well-directed, and even well-intended literary efforts.

THE EDITOR.

*Cambridge, 1st January, 1832.*

THE  
AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW.

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JANUARY, 1832.

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- ART. I. — 1. *Annals of Yale College, in New Haven, Connecticut, from its Foundation, to the Year 1831; with an Appendix, containing Statistical Tables, and exhibiting the Present Condition of the Institution.* By EBENEZER BALDWIN. New Haven. Hezekiah Howe. 1831. 8vo. pp. 324.
2. *An Address delivered at New Haven before the Phi Beta Kappa Society. September 13, 1831.* By JAMES KENT. New Haven. Hezekiah Howe. 1831. 8vo. pp. 48.

THE history of our literary institutions is to a considerable extent the history of our country. It embraces an interesting portion of the lives of most of our distinguished men in church and in state; a period when the powers of the mind are pliant, and may be moulded by wise exertion to future valuable purposes. The pupils go forth prepared in part to sustain the duties of professional and active life, under the influences of the institution from which they proceed, and to reflect back upon the place of their education the character and distinction of riper years. The quality of instruction is a measure of the general intelligence and refinement of the community; for no seminary of learning can be sustained, that lags in the rear of an improved condition of science and literature in the public around. Hence the higher institutions, in their aggregation of learned men, and the means and appliances of knowledge, form an important part of the great whole, and become of indispensable and incalculable value to the progress of national welfare and national character. They embrace the aspiring of every rank and condition in life, and lend all their aids in advancing the individual in sound and wholesome learning.

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With these views of the importance of literary institutions, we take pleasure in noticing every attempt to sketch their history in our own country, and to extend more widely a knowledge of their circumstances, wants, and benefits. We feel confident that every endeavour of the kind will show that our colleges are deserving of the greatest public and individual patronage, and will manifest that though a liberal spirit has done much for them, their wants are in general still great and urgent, in order to prepare ripe and good scholars to sustain and advance the improvements of the age.

We have read with much interest the unpretending volume of Mr. Baldwin, in which he has given to the public the annals of Yale College from its foundation to the present period; and we wish to furnish our readers with as full a summary of the work as our limits will permit. The author's principal authorities, in addition to his own faithful researches, are President Clap's History of the College, published in 1766; the writings of Presidents Stiles and Dwight; Trumbull's History of Connecticut, and Douglass' Political and Historical Summary.

So early as the year 1652, a project of a college to be established at New Haven was formed by several of the clergy in that Colony, "chiefly in reference to the interests of the church." But the General Court thought New Haven an unfit place, because it had "no comfortable subsistence for the present inhabitants there," and were adverse to the plan itself, on account of the poverty of the Colony, unless they could obtain the aid of Connecticut, which was then and until the reign of Charles the Second, a distinct government.

The subject was not again agitated till the year 1700, when some of the "ministerial associations and councils" voted to establish a college, and selected ten of their number as trustees. But so limited were their views at this time, arising perhaps naturally enough from the circumstance, that at that period there were scarcely any educated men out of the clerical order, that they proposed to erect the institution "by a general synod of the consociated churches" mingling in the elections of the officers to preserve orthodoxy, requiring of them a confession of faith, and naming the College "The School of the Church."

The mode of founding the College was in character with



the simple manner of proceeding belonging to the age. "Each member," says President Clap, "brought a number of books and presented them to the body; and laying them on the table said these words, 'I give these books for the founding a college in this Colony.' Then the Trustees took possession of them, and confided them to the care of the Rev. Mr. Russell, of Branford, as librarian." The library which consisted of *forty folios*, was kept at Branford three years, and was then removed to Killingworth.

Thus far the association was entirely voluntary, and its prospect of continuance uncertain. In order, however, that it might be placed on a surer foundation, the Trustees obtained from the Assembly, October 9, 1701, a formal charter which had been drawn up at their request by Judge Sewall and Secretary Isaac Addington of Boston. The Trustees met at Saybrook the following month, when they chose the Rev. Abraham Pierson of Killingworth, Rector of the College, and adopted various regulations, among which was one requiring the students to recite *memoriter* the Assembly's Catechism in Latin, and Ames's Theological Theses. Saybrook was designated as the seat of the institution, where the first Commencement was held, September 13, 1702. But the Rector remained at Killingworth till his death, in 1707, and there instructed the students. Saybrook proved an inconvenient spot for the College, and it made but slow progress under the management of a temporary non-resident Rector, till it was removed to New Haven, in 1716. Two years after this, in consequence of a liberal donation made by Elihu Yale, of London, a native of New Haven, and Governor of the East India Company, the Trustees named the institution Yale College.

The change of place immediately proved auspicious to the interests of the College. The number of students increased to nearly forty; and in 1719, the Rev. Timothy Cutler, of Stratford, was chosen Resident Rector. Under his care affairs went on prosperously for several years, and until a change of his religious opinions in favor of the doctrine and discipline of the Church of England rendered his resignation necessary. Episcopacy at this period in Connecticut was in as bad odor as the doctrine of Antipedobaptism was in the preceding century in Massachusetts Bay, when the excellent President Dunster, who was deeply

tingtured with this doctrine, gave up the charge of Harvard University ; or as the *Antinomian and Familistical* notions of Mrs. Hutchinson and Sir Henry Vane, that proved so offensive to good Mr. Cotton and the other leading men in the latter Colony. To guard against future defections of the like nature, the Trustees passed a vote requiring all future officers of the College to declare their assent to the *confession of faith* called the Saybrook Platform, and to signify their opposition to *Arminianism and Prelatical corruptions*.

Dr. Cutler was a native of Charlestown, Massachusetts, and a graduate of Harvard College in 1701. After resigning the office of Rector of Yale College, he took Church orders in England, and was subsequently Rector of Christ's Church in Boston. He bore a high reputation for integrity and learning, and excelled in his knowledge of the Oriental languages and the classics ; while in the philosophy of the day, in metaphysics and ethics, it would seem he was without a superior.

In 1725, the Rev. Elisha Williams, a native of Hatfield, Massachusetts, a graduate of Harvard College in 1711, and minister of Wethersfield in Connecticut, was chosen his successor. Under his energetic administration the welfare of the institution both in discipline and instruction was signally promoted. He departed somewhat from the scholastic tendency of the age, and introduced "a taste for useful and polite literature." It was in his time that Bishop Berkeley became a munificent patron of the College, by the gift of one thousand volumes of choice books, and a valuable farm in Newport, Rhode Island, where he resided while in America. Mr. Williams, in consequence of ill health, resigned his office in 1739. The Trustees voted him "their hearty thanks for his good service in the College." During the remainder of his life he resided at Wethersfield. He became a member and speaker of the House of Assembly, a Judge of the Superior Court, and "was appointed Colonel of a regiment, on a proposed expedition against Canada." Dr. Doddridge and President Stiles unite in giving him a character of ardent religion, nobleness of soul, and great and highly cultivated intellectual powers.

The Rev. Thomas Clap was immediately chosen his successor. He was born in Scituate, Massachusetts, and was graduated at Harvard College in 1722, when the worthy John Leverett presided over that institution. He was settled in

the ministry at Windham, in Connecticut. During the Presidency of Mr. Clap several improvements were made of a beneficial character. He compiled a new code of laws; prepared an alphabetical and analytical catalogue of the library, which had already, from the donations of Bishop Berkeley and other friends, become respectable; increased the number of instructors; built the South Middle College; was instrumental in establishing a professorship of Divinity, and in connexion with Governor Fitch, drew up a new charter, which was approved by the Assembly, and thus secured to the College in due form all its rights, privileges, and immunities. The taste of President Clap inclined him to the severer studies of the mathematics, polemic divinity, and philosophy, and his example had an influence upon the students. Hence there was a departure in some measure from the direction given to college studies by his immediate predecessor. He was doubtless a very learned man, and not only so; not a mere scholastic, he turned his attention to a variety of pursuits, and easily made himself master of whatever department of learning he undertook. And more than this, he possessed remarkable energy of character and directness of purpose, and aided most liberally, both in time and money, the institution whose interests he had much at heart. He resigned his office in 1766, and died at New Haven in January following.

With all his exertions, and partly perhaps in consequence of them, President Clap had become very unpopular. But the truth of the matter is, that he had too much good sense, conscience, and independence, to yield to a popular excitement which at that time, and for many subsequent years, prevailed against the institution on the very theatre of its operations and usefulness. This may have been owing in part to the organization of the institution, and to the fact that none but clergymen, and they only of one denomination, controlled its affairs. Whatever may have been the cause, an attempt was made by several of the leading men to subject the College to "the *visitatorial* power of commissioners" under the appointment of the General Assembly. Two of the leading lawyers in the Colony were retained for the purpose of carrying this measure before the Assembly. President Clap himself undertook the defence of the charter, and denied the right of the Assembly to interfere in the concerns

of the College. Though no lawyer, he pursued his researches in the common law, and when the hearing came, astonished every one with the variety and extent of his learning, and the soundness of his legal opinions. He proved that the Assembly could not be the founder or visitor in the sense of the common law; that the first trustees were the founders before the first charter was obtained, and confirmed their right by a "large and formal donation of books"; and consequently, that they and their successors possessed the whole visitatorial power. He succeeded in convincing the Assembly of the truth of his position, much to the chagrin of the memorialists. Trumbull says, that "he appeared to be superior to all the lawyers, so that his antagonists acknowledged that he knew more and was wiser than all of them."

Mr. Baldwin remarks, that "the policy of the opposition to the power of visitation may well be questioned." But we think that President Clap was right on the score of policy, as well as of principle. If the right of visitation implied merely the right of being present during college exercises at certain periods, an opposition thereto on the part of the College might be objectionable on the score of policy. But the objection is exceedingly well founded, when we recollect that the right of visitation was claimed for the Assembly, as being the founder of the institution, and that a submission on the part of the College would have been an acknowledgment of this right too explicit to be afterwards overcome or denied; and lasting honor is due to the President for preserving the College from the tender mercies of a fluctuating, and therefore in some measure of an irresponsible body. It was certainly well afterwards, not indeed as a matter of right, but of courtesy, to admit a portion of the state government to visit in connexion with the Trustees, but not to allow a popular assembly at its will to take the management of the College, control its operations, and alter at pleasure its constitution. Bowdoin College a few years since submitted its charter to the will of the legislature from motives of policy, and already begins to experience the more than doubtful benefits of the measure.

President Clap deserves to be remembered with gratitude in all ages by those who are friendly to the integrity, safety, and interests of our colleges, for the noble stand he maintained; and the decision of the celebrated case of Dartmouth

College fully sustains and perpetuates the correctness of his views. The effect of this opposition was, no doubt, for awhile injurious to the institution, and so late as 1784, a pamphlet was published in Connecticut, entitled "Yale College subject to the General Assembly," where his argument is criticised with more severity than strength, and the College is spoken of as languishing, because it will not submit to the oversight of the Assembly. But the distressed state of the country at that period, in connexion with remaining and unjust prejudices, may have had its full share in its influence upon the College. Mr. Baldwin remarks, and we think justly, that President Clap was the greatest man who ever sat at the head of that institution. His defence of the charter was praise enough for one man.

To President Clap succeeded the Rev. Naphtali Dagget, a native of Attleborough, Massachusetts, a graduate of Yale College in 1748, afterwards minister of Smithtown, Long Island, and Professor of Divinity at Yale College. During his presidency a professorship of mathematics and natural philosophy was established. He was distinguished for his learning in the various branches of theological study, and on the whole, was a successful officer through a very gloomy period in the history of our country. He resigned his office in 1777, and died in 1780.

President Stiles came into office in 1777. He was a native of North Haven, and was graduated at Yale College in 1746. He studied and practised law for a few years, but afterwards resumed the study of divinity, which he had begun on leaving college, and became the minister of the Second Congregational Society in Newport, Rhode Island. He was a man of distinguished talents and varied learning, and was particularly versed in the Oriental, Greek, and Latin languages, and in astronomy. He was an instrument of much good to the College. Possessing a catholic spirit and marked energy of character, he became highly popular as the head of the College, and labored much and successfully for its interests. In 1783, he had two hundred and seventy pupils.

In 1792, with the consent of the College, the charter was altered, and the Governor with the six senior assistants was added to the Corporation. This was done with the good will of all parties, and not as yielding to any new claim set up by the legislature, as possessing the right of founder.

Thus constituted the Corporation has enjoyed public favor; perhaps greater than before, but with no very remarkable legislative bounty. We should gladly enlarge upon the learning, zeal, talents, and temperament of President Stiles, and his heathful influence in every thing that concerns the College; but we have already trenched upon our limits. A full and interesting biography of this distinguished scholar and Christian has been published by his relative, the Rev. Dr. Holmes. He died at New Haven in 1795, after a confinement of four days. It is a singular fact, that he was the first resident President who died in the office.

The remembrance of the late Dr. Dwight, the successor of President Stiles, is so fresh in the minds of our readers, that it can hardly be necessary to enlarge upon his character. Many in every part of our country, who were educated at Yale College when he was at its head, rejoice in his memory and in the good fortune of having been his pupils. When he came to the chair, the only officers of instruction were a Professor of Mathematics and three tutors. He himself performed the duties of Professor of Divinity, and labored successfully in establishing the professorships of Law, of Chemistry and Mineralogy, of Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, and in laying the foundation of the Medical School. He abolished all that remained of that servile custom that rendered the freshmen, as it were, "hewers of wood and drawers of water" to the higher classes. He revised the whole system of laws, and established a better corrective than pecuniary penalties. He widened the field and the objects of study, devoted his vigorous powers to the interests of the College, and through "his reputation, his suavity of manners, and experience as an instructor," large numbers were induced to resort to the institution to enjoy its benefits.

President Dwight was a native of Northampton, Massachusetts. He was graduated at Yale College in 1769. After being a tutor at College some time, he returned to Northampton to reside, and represented that town in the legislature of Massachusetts in 1781 and 1782. While in the legislature, he is said to have been mainly instrumental in obtaining a grant for the University at Cambridge, that had been just before refused by the House. In 1783, he was settled in the ministry at Fairfield, in Connecticut, where he remained till he was called to preside over the College.

His worthy successor, President Day, has been fortunate in sustaining the character of the College that has been entrusted to his charge. Since he came into the office in 1817, several professorships have been established, viz. those of Rhetoric and Oratory, of Didactic Theology, and of Sacred Literature; while that of Divinity has been detached from the presidency.

A few years ago a committee of the Corporation was chosen to consider the expediency of omitting the ancient classics in the course of study in the institution. The committee seem to have fully investigated the subject, and made an elaborate report, embracing another, made in behalf of the Faculty, vindicating the routine of study at the College. These reports, which are attributed to the President and Professor Kingsley, are spoken of by Mr. Baldwin in terms of praise. They had the desired effect, and were accepted by the Corporation.

There is one practice that still maintains its ground at Yale College. We mean the dramatic representations on Commencement day. We are happy to find that Mr. Baldwin passes his censure upon it. It is entirely out of character in literary exhibitions, and answers no one good purpose. He justly represents it as a "ridiculous and timid imitation of the regular drama. . . . In the entire absence of scenery, unsupported by female actors, and on a stage surrounded by a venerable circle of clergymen and senators, every effort for dramatic display at Commencement must prove abortive." In reality these "exercises do not usually equal the most indifferent performances of the theatre." We recollect well, in spending commencement day at New Haven a few years since, witnessing the performance of a tragedy (so called), in which William Tell, the hero of Switzerland, figured largely. And there was Geisler, the Austrian Governor, and his adherents. And they all mounted the stage with their good broad swords at their side, and fretted and fumed their little hour. Oh! it was more, it extended through three acts of monotonous dialogue, till our patience was exhausted. Swords were drawn, and things appeared of fearful import. At last one of the performers fainted away and was carried from the stage; but still no relief. Another man at arms stepped up to take his place, reading his part from a huge manuscript he held in one hand, and sawing the air

furiously with the other. We regretted that these things were tolerated, and lament that they still retain their hold. The governors of the College, as wise and prudent men, should recollect that this usage is at war with good taste, and should banish the buskin and sock from their literary anniversary, as we believe they have already been banished from every other respectable college, and from our principal academies.

Yale College is now in a more flourishing condition than at any former time. Its funds are not large; but it has done extensive good with moderate means. It has received from the state for a period of one hundred and thirty years over \$71,000. In the mean while, the munificence of private benefactors has been much more considerable. The Society of the Alumni, lately formed there, subscribed \$30,000 towards relieving the College from pecuniary embarrassment, and are pledged to use their individual exertions to increase the sum to \$100,000.

The buildings of the College are in a delightful and healthy situation. In 1830, there were forty-nine theological students, and a respectable number of law students. The number of undergraduates exceeds that at any of our other colleges. The whole number of graduates, *ab primo origine*, to the year 1830, inclusive, is four thousand four hundred and sixty-two; of these, two thousand four hundred and forty-four were living in 1830. The whole number of clergymen on the Catalogue is one thousand and sixty-seven, of whom four hundred and fifty-three were living. The terms of admission, matriculation, and the course of instruction are much the same as at Cambridge. The necessary expenses for a student, not including apparel, pocket-money, travelling, and boarding during vacations, is about the same, viz. from \$140 to \$190. The college library contains towards ten thousand volumes, and there is nearly an equal number in the social libraries of the undergraduates. The chemical department, through the exertions of Professor Silliman, has attained to great completeness. The mineralogical cabinet that in 1803 literally filled but a single "candle-box," is now the largest and most magnificent in the country, and we are not sure that it is exceeded in completeness by the excellent cabinet at Cambridge. The former was purchased partly of Mr. Benjamin D. Perkins,



but principally of Colonel Gibbs, whose collection consisted of ten thousand specimens, purchased by him in Europe. This collection was generously deposited in the College in 1810, by the owner, and there remained open for the use of instructors and students till 1825. In that year it was bought of him for \$20,000. Of this sum the officers of the College and the citizens of New Haven contributed \$10,000.

The Address of Chancellor Kent is characterized, like every thing from his pen, by great vigor and freshness, while it derives additional interest from the circumstance that *fifty years* ago he addressed a literary assembly from the same spot. The author treats at some length of the policy and institutions of the early Connecticut settlers, as highly favorable to the establishment and success of a college. He then gives a brief historical sketch of the institution, with its various stages of progress, and remarks upon the extensive and beneficial influence it has exerted upon the welfare of the country. We are pleased to see, that without detracting from the importance of the exact sciences and mechanical philosophy, he enters with earnestness into the defence of the study of ancient languages and literature, and is disposed to sustain them at their real value. The remarks seem particularly well timed, since there is so much loose and idle declamation afloat upon the subject in the community, and the classics are in danger of being wounded in the house of their friends. And more than all, it is pleasing to have the testimony of learning and experience in favor of the appropriate pursuit of youth, the delight of manhood, and the solace of old age.

We cannot conclude without again offering our thanks to Mr. Baldwin for his interesting and useful volume. It is written with no idle parade, but in a sober, business-like manner, and yet with all the warmth and affection of a devoted son. Works of this character are of no mean value. They show, in some measure, though they cannot possibly show fully, the deep, the vital importance of our literary institutions; and would convince the unreflecting, and all who have not a malignant disposition, that in no way can the welfare of the country be more seriously, more vitally injured, than by a successful attack upon the independence and usefulness of our literary institutions. If their wholesome influence be crushed, if their means of doing good, their facilities for fur-

nishing thorough education be taken away, or be left to the shifting tide of the popular will, then may we indeed despair of our republic.

It is time, that our elder colleges had their *Athenæ* and their *Fasti*, under the auspices of some native Anthony Wood. And we would commend the despised diligence of our local antiquaries, men who gather and embody isolated facts, men whom an accurate date, or the certainty of a name or an event, quickens and refreshes. They make their silent gatherings, and collect numerous pleasing and curious incidents, which go to illustrate the manners of the age, as well as individual character; and while they labor neither for immediate nor posthumous fame, they heap up for the future annalist, historian, and biographer, and for an unconscious posterity, the neglected treasures of a preceding age.

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ART. II. — 1. *A Grammar of the Hebrew Language*, by MOSES STUART, Associate Professor of Sacred Literature in the Theological Institution at Andover. Fourth edition, corrected and enlarged. Andover. Flagg & Gould. 1831. 8vo.

2. *A Hebrew Chrestomathy, designed as the First Volume of a Course of Hebrew Study*. By MOSES STUART, Associate Professor of Sacred Literature in the Theological Institution at Andover. Flagg & Gould. 1829. 8vo.

3. *A Manual Hebrew and English Lexicon; including the Biblical Chaldee; designed particularly for Beginners*. By JOSIAH W. GIBBS, A. M., Professor of Sacred Literature in the Theological School in Yale College. Andover. Flagg & Gould. 1828. 8vo.

THESE works constitute quite a sufficient apparatus for learners in the Hebrew language. Professor Stuart's Grammar, which originally embraced the substance of Gesenius's great work upon the same subject, but which was not merely a translation, and did not follow closely the arrangement of Gesenius, nor confine itself in all respects to his limits, has undergone great changes in the successive editions, the last two being considerably reduced in size, and still containing abundant materials for the student. In the fourth edition, he has in some degree simplified the classification of the

vowels, which always present a formidable appearance to the learner. This change we fully approve. Indeed, we have never been wholly reconciled to the abandonment of the old arrangement into long and short vowels, to which were sub-joined all the important rules concerning the exceptions. This arrangement appears less complex to the learner, and affords greater facility for the explanations of the teacher. If, besides this, the rules of syllabication and of the quantity of the vowels were combined and illustrated together, something, it seems to us, would be gained both in brevity and clearness. Respecting the vowel changes, some rules are demanded, and the most important general rules are laid down by Professor Stuart with sufficient distinctness. But there are many rules of a more minute kind concerning this subject, depending upon an induction of particulars which are not always sufficient for demonstration, and sometimes resulting merely in that short mandate of sovereignty in language, "*Sic voluit usus.*" After teaching as much concerning orthography, as shall enable the pupil to read the words well enough for a tolerable Christian *hebraist*, grammatical commentaries are mainly important for etymological purposes. If Professor Stuart sometimes goes farther beyond these boundaries, than most Hebrew scholars will be disposed to follow him, still it might seem ungrateful to complain, since in most cases he plainly indicates where they may stop short, and may return at their pleasure to explore the whole ground.

Professor Stuart's *Chrestomathy*, a title which has been some time in use for books of this kind, consists, 1. of a selection of verbs and nouns of the various classes; 2. of easy sentences for beginners; and 3. of large select portions of the Hebrew Scriptures, in prose and poetry. Copious practical notes are appended to these several parts, with correct and convenient references to the grammar.

Mr. Gibbs's *Lexicon* was taken, in its first form, from the German works of that distinguished oriental scholar, Professor Gesenius. The prominent changes in Gesenius's *Lexicon* from those which preceded it, were a departure from the etymological arrangement, and the adoption of his vernacular language instead of the Latin, for giving the signification of the Hebrew words. Former Hebrew *Lexicons*, at all valuable for learning and thoroughness, were intended to be constructed on strict principles of etymology; compelling

the novitiate, most absurdly, to trace the derivatives to their primitives, without giving them a place according to their initial letters. And so thorough were the old lexicographers in carrying out their theory of the derivation of nouns from verbs, that in case of emergency, they would distort the supposed primitive into any shade or shape of meaning, in order to bring about their purpose; or, in case there was no primitive to be thus tortured, they would invent one, which they pronounced to be obsolete, or adopt one that best served their scheme, from a kindred language.

The Lexicon of Mr. Gibbs is the first Hebrew-English Lexicon of any critical value that has appeared. The Manual, whose title is given above, was preceded by a more copious Lexicon upon the plan of Gesenius; but the Manual is quite sufficient for learners, and for all common purposes of the Hebrew student. The study of the Hebrew language is much facilitated by this work; and while the pupil is no longer compelled to grope his way through the mazes of former lexicographers, he is still furnished with all the etymological aid, which is requisite for understanding the true derivation of words.

We shall not be thought to stray far from our purpose, by speaking in commendation of the many valuable works which have proceeded from the press connected with the large and flourishing Theological Institution at Andover. The Biblical Repository, the first volume of which was completed in the number for October last, deserves a place in the library of every theologian and philologist. It contains a great amount of valuable theological learning, and introduces us to a much more familiar acquaintance with the German universities, and the state of theological education, than the English reader can derive from any other source. We hope and trust that the public will not suffer this work to fail for want of that kind of encouragement, without which the learned cannot be expected to furnish for others that intellectual aliment, which it has cost them so much expense and toil to acquire.

Amidst the various conflicting opinions of the theologians and of sects, it must afford pleasure to every man of liberal mind and sound learning to watch and trace the progress of biblical knowledge, in whatever sect it may be manifested. And we are pleased to find that such things are not overlooked by the scholars of our mother country. The *Rev. Samuel Lee*,

Royal Professor of Hebrew in the University of Cambridge, England, with a generosity becoming a man of his eminent acquirements and gifts, writes to Professor Robinson, the editor of the *Biblical Repository*; "It delights me and all my Cambridge and other friends, to find that our American neighbours are really outstripping us in the cause of biblical literature. . . . I am quite sure you will find no *unholy* rivalry here, although I do hope you will find us endeavouring to keep up the race, as well as the contention necessary to secure that crown which fadeth not away."

The country of this learned Professor has not for a long period past been distinguished for attention to the Hebrew language and literature; but we cannot doubt that the land which can boast of such men as Pococke and Lowth, will resume its place among the nations, and produce its fair portion of great oriental scholars and biblical critics.

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ART. III. — *Introduction to the Study of the Greek Classic Poets, designed principally for the Use of Young Persons at School and College.* By HENRY NELSON COLERIDGE, Esq. A. M., late Fellow of King's College, &c. Part I. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea.

A DELIGHTFUL volume. We had perused it before the American reprint came out, with unmingled pleasure, and we rejoice that the Philadelphia publishers have brought it in the power of all our scholars to avail themselves of its charming pages. Mr. Coleridge announces his intention "under favorable circumstances to continue these Introductions through the whole body of Greek Classical Poetry." We earnestly hope he may go on with the work, for we are persuaded that it will conduce to the best interests of sound scholarship on both sides of the Atlantic. Mr. Coleridge possesses much of the fine poetical spirit of his great relative, united to the thorough and philosophical learning, which runs through the best productions of the author of "*Biographia Literaria*." His language is remarkable in many respects. He writes like a man who has a perfect mastery over the treasures of his native tongue. He has gone to the primitive meaning of his words, and uses them with a singular clearness and force. Amidst the general indistinctness which the

foolish adoption of fashionable phrases, and the childish aspiration for strong and sounding eloquence, have spread like a mist over much of the writing of the present day, it is heart-cheering to emerge into the sunlight of such a book. Classical studies appear to have wrought their legitimate effect upon a mind originally gifted with acute perception and poetic feeling. His thoughts are sound and well ordered; his arrangement and expression are logical and exact; his sense of beauty is quick, discerning, and beams out in language of graphic propriety, and at times of surpassing splendor. No Englishman ever entered more completely into the spirit of classical literature; no critic ever judged with a more just appreciation and a more sympathizing heart. He has no set of critical dogmas, founded on a conventional mode of literature, by which he decides on the worth of the "blind old man of Scio's rocky isle." He does not measure the majestic remains of a far-off heroic age by a system of rules, built upon a misinterpreted passage from a fragment of antiquity; but he enters, with a believing heart, into the secret soul of elder poetry. He applies his clear reason to the comprehending of those marvellous songs; embodying the irrepressible spirit of a young nation, an heroic race, with a fine physical organization, surrounded by the luxuriance of an unsubdued nature, beneath the glories of more than an Italian heaven, inhaling the balmiest breath of the sky — sung in the old Ionic language, the most wonderful form of the Greek, that miracle of human tongues, copious and majestic as the mighty ocean; clear as the still lake; rising to the level of the sublimest theme, and with matchless versatility, descending to the calmest and gentlest moods of the soul; reflecting, as in a mirror, every feature of external nature, and uttering, as with the voice of inspiration, every tone of the passions of the heart. These eternal monuments of the Homeric age, Mr. Coleridge surveys and judges with the profoundness of a veteran scholar, with the sympathy and the love of kindred genius.

The "General Introduction" contains many finely conceived and clearly expressed remarks on "purity of language," for which he justly says, the elder poets, particularly Homer, Dante, and Chaucer, are honorably distinguished. We entirely coincide in his strictures upon Pope's Translation of Homer in this respect. That celebrated version,

splendid as is its general aspect, is a most miserable substitute for the divine original. It is no more like Homer, than a modern parlour is like a Grecian camp; it is no more like that antique heroic song, than a modern dandy, with his whiskers, stays, and mincing speech, is like the "mighty Telamonian Ajax," or the *βόηρ ἄγαθὸς Διομήδης*. The distinction between fancy and imagination is stated with great accuracy. Mr. Coleridge shows with no small ingenuity, that it is a distinction to be borne perpetually in mind by a philosophical critic, and that it is especially necessary in judging of the merits of the writers of antiquity. The distinctive characteristics of the southern and northern nations, which run through the whole extent of European literature are pointed out; and the Introduction winds up with a train of beautiful and scholarlike remarks upon the effects of classical learning, and the pleasurable associations it affords the student in the maturity and the declining age of life.

"These inestimable advantages [of a knowledge of the Greek and Latin classics], which no modern skill can wholly counterpoise, are known and felt by the scholar alone. He has not failed, in the sweet and silent studies of his youth, to drink deep at those sacred fountains of all that is just and beautiful in human language. The thoughts and the words of the master-spirits of Greece and Rome are inseparably blended in his memory; a sense of their marvellous harmonies, their exquisite fitness, their consummate polish, has sunken for ever in his heart, and thence throws out light and fragranciness upon the gloom and the annoyances of his maturer years. No avocations of professional labor will make him abandon their wholesome study; amidst a thousand cares he will find an hour to recur to his boyish lessons; to reperuse them in the pleasurable consciousness of old associations, and in the clearness of manly judgment, and to apply them to himself and to the world with superior profit. The more extended his sphere of learning in the literature of modern Europe, the more wisely will he reverence that of classical antiquity: and in declining age, he will retire, as it were, within a circle of school-fellow friends, and end his studies, as he began them, with his Homer, his Horace, and his Shakspeare." pp. 35, 36.

The body of the work is made up of a history of the preservation of the Iliad, life of Homer, character of the poetry, some notice of the great Homeric question, morals of the Iliad, language, &c. The Odyssey, and the other shorter

poems which usually pass under the name of Homer, are handled in the same manner. These various topics are treated with acuteness, learning, and good sense. We have never met more valuable reflections, liberal scholarship, and sound criticism, within the same space, in any language. We should differ, perhaps, from some of Mr. Coleridge's conclusions; but we cordially applaud the spirit and manner of his disquisition. The subject of classical learning has generally been taken up in such a narrow and exclusive spirit, and treated in such dry and merely technical details, that we hail this manifestation of a truer tone of criticism, with no ordinary pleasure. Our author is as far from a blind idolatry on the one hand, as he is from a spirit of heartless sneering on the other. He can give a reason for the faith that is in him. No ordinary range of literary accomplishments has placed within his reach the materials of thought and illustration with which every page of his volume teems. He has carried into his intellectual faith the Scripture command; "Prove all things; hold fast that which is good."

Such a work, extended through the other departments of Greek literature, particularly the tragic and lyric, would be an invaluable addition to the stores of higher criticism in the English language. A few such treatises reflecting with tasteful fidelity the genuine spirit of the classics, would rouse the minds of young scholars to the real value of those mighty remains, more than a million of abstract arguments. The baneful and calculating theory of education, according to which every object of knowledge is to be estimated by dollars, cents, and mills, has gained such respectable advocacy, that strong efforts are needed to set public opinion right; though, on the whole, we are inclined to think that the current of public opinion has already taken the right direction. If it is not, such men as Mr. Coleridge can easily cause it to be so.

We therefore recommend this book to all. The Greek type in which the extracts are printed are, it is true, too mean for any thing but the paltry productions of the worn out muse of Alexandria. But the book itself we recommend. The young will find in it much to excite a noble enthusiasm. The ripe scholar will meet the golden thoughts of his happiest hours—the evanescent glimpses that have broken upon his mind from that glorious antique land—secured in the



imperishable forms of his own vigorous tongue. The advanced in life may revive from its pages the cherished recollections of youth and the hallowed associations of literary manhood.

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ART. IV. — *Remains of the* REV. EDMUND D. GRIFFIN, compiled by FRANCIS GRIFFIN, with a Biographical Memoir of the deceased, by the Rev. JOHN M'VICKAR, D. D., Professor of Moral Philosophy, &c., in Columbia College. In 2 vols. 8vo. New York. G. & C. & H. Carvill. 1831.

THIS "Biographical Memoir" is a very well written and highly engaging account of Mr. Griffin, the author of the posthumous remains; exhibiting his early promise, and describing his youthful achievements. It is also a very useful account, since it traces with sufficient minuteness, not only his literary career, but his moral growth. It presents a beautiful picture of boyhood and youth, the ardor of which was tempered by most remarkable self-government and maturity of judgment; of youth diligently employed, but not losing in rivalry the generous virtues, and especially the kind domestic affections; and above all, a manhood preceded by innocence and improvement, adorned with various learning and accomplishments, and crowned with genuine religious feeling and taste.

We cannot afford room to say all we could wish concerning the contents of these volumes. The fugitive poems in Latin, commencing with those written at fourteen years of age, are uncommon specimens of good latinity and metrical correctness; and those in English, whether classical or descriptive, playful or grave, if they do not glow with the full inspiration, or display the thorough invention of genius, are in good taste, and creditable both to the intellect and heart of the author.

Far the greater part of these volumes is occupied with the author's account of "A Tour through Italy and Switzerland, in 1829," and with extracts from his "Journal of a Tour through France, England, and Scotland, in 1828, 1829, and 1830"; written between the twenty-third and twenty-sixth year of his age, which last year he did not live to complete.

The extent of personal observation displayed in this itine-

rary are truly wonderful. The author's tour through Italy and Switzerland commenced with January, 1829, from Lyons over Mont Cenis, a summit of the western Alps, which afforded him an opportunity to display his graphic powers in the description of Alpine scenery. The external beauties of nature and art he every where minutely traces. But arriving at Genoa, some of the paintings of the great masters seized on his attention; and afterwards at Florence, he became so enchanted by the great productions of wonderful artists, both painters and statuaries, that, as he says, he could have lingered there for years; and it was with deep regret that he found himself obliged to abandon for ever, this, as one of her own poets has called her, "the great queen-city of Etruria."

When arrived at Rome, he took immediate cognizance of whatever is most deserving of attention in the ancient city, coming down also to recent times, and extending his excursions to the most memorable places in the country around. That he was a visitor well prepared for this classic ground is made abundantly evident by the extreme facility with which he called up and applied the history of poets and philosophers, orators and warriors, and, in general, the remarkable events and the whole local mythology of ancient Rome; and associated them with the places and material remains still existing. So that while as an admirer both of natural scenery and of exquisite works of art, he seems for a time to have been wholly absorbed, and to have conversed only with himself, and then to have burst forth in exhaustless descriptions of things, with which he became filled to overflowing; yet when he came to survey the ancient classic villas and places of public or private resort, he held familiar converse with the master-spirits of ages long since past, and seemed to be a present witness of their splendor and glory. Indeed, he appears to have been much more inclined to hold dialogues with the mighty dead, than with the degenerate race of the present age. And no one can peruse his travels, otherwise so remarkable for vivid description, without perceiving the almost total absence of casual conversation and anecdote; and how little comparatively of his thoughts were employed to catch the living manners as they rise. Hence, probably many readers will be wearied with his delineations of scenery and paintings, and statues, (picturesque and fresh and glowing, as they generally are) from their very frequency, and

often from their uninterrupted succession ; forming a kind of picture gallery of such huge dimensions, that the eye is dazzled and confused, and pauses for recovery.

As an example of the author's quick and vivid recollections, and rapid associations of persons and events with places, we quote the following, which happens to occur to us, and is not singled out as among the most remarkable of the numerous instances of a similar kind.

"The history of Padua ascends to a very remote antiquity. According to Virgil, it was founded by Antenor and a Trojan colony, one of those scattered bands of refugees, whom the most celebrated of sieges had left alive. . . . Among her sons, Padua boasts the historian Livy, whose 'Pativinitas,' it is well known, adhered to him even amid the refinements of the capital, and throughout his long literary career ; and, in our own age Belzoni, the enterprising explorer of the Nile. Among her adopted children she ranks Petrarch, who was a canon of her cathedral ; Galileo, who was a lecturer ; and Columbus, who was a student of her university : thus claiming in part the honors which belong to one of the chief revivers of letters, to the author of the true science of the planets, and the discoverer of one half of our own. I could not also but remember that Padua, in common with many of the cities of the north of Italy, had been illustrated by the genius of our own immortal Shakespeare. It was here that he tamed his shrew, and taught a fine though rude lesson to the fairer sex. How powerful is the force of that man's genius ! I knew that he had never been in Padua ; that the characters which he introduces had never perhaps existed ; and yet, such is the reality with which he depicts the events, the feelings, the personages of his drama, that I found them recorded in my mind among the recollections of history." Vol. II. pp. 82, 83.

In his visits at some of the smaller cities, Mr. Griffin's attention was excited more to an observation of the manners and customs of the present generation. At Parma he witnessed one of those scenes, which show the quick transition of the common people, in Catholic countries, from the midst of gayety to the outward acts of devotion.

"I saw their principal piazza crowded towards evening with gay circles of the common people, listening in one place to one of those extemporaneous poets, once so common, but now so rare in Italy ; and in another, swarming round a conjurer, who, with fantastic dress and apparatus spread upon the pave-

ment, was mystifying the open-mouthed and astonished mob. Here, a transparent wheel with a light within, and circulating transparencies, exhibited in doubtful twilight its shadowy wonders, and there a dog with a monkey on his back capered round his little arena. All were cheerful and amused as they passed from one to another of these spectacles. As the bell tolled for the Ave Maria, every hat was taken off, and every hand put in motion to make the holy sign ; the improvisatore, with a low reverence to his audience, broke off in the middle of a stanza ; the conjurer gathered up his goods ; the wheel ceased its evolutions ; even the dog, as he got rid of his troublesome rider, seemed to recognise with joy the sacred hour of prayer and repose." Vol. II. pp. 98, 99.

The tour through Switzerland, as it consumed comparatively a small part of the author's time, occupies accordingly a proportionably small space in its history. It is, however, full of lively descriptions of the varied scenery of that remarkable country. We might fill many pages with selections from the delineations of natural beauty and grandeur, as true we have no doubt in their aspect, and in their effect on the beholder, as they are poetical in expression, when touched by the rapid pencil of the delighted traveller whom we have been following. These delineations every where occur in the author's tour, both through Italy and Switzerland ; whether inspired by mountain scenery and glaciers, by vales, rivers, and lakes ; by the splendor of noon-day, or the softer radiance of sunrise and sunset ; by the varied hues of the surrounding and overhanging expanse, or by the moonbeams playing on the quiet waters.

The extracts from the Journal of a Tour through France, England, and Scotland, contain passages descriptive of scenery, public buildings, &c., and particularly of distinguished persons in these countries. The following is a part of the author's description of *Cousin*, and of one of his lectures :

"The lecturer on the present occasion [at the Sorbonne], *M. Cousin*, is a tall, thin man, about forty years of age. His eyes are large and exceedingly expressive. He was dressed in the ordinary habit of a gentleman ; and delivered his lecture standing in an easy and dignified posture. Though his subject was of an abstract nature, he spoke extempore with an uninterrupted fluency. His manner approached very nearly to one's idea of inspiration. The whole man, head, eyes, hands, and body, as well as voice, seemed to be engaged, and that too

without the least awkwardness or affectation, in the expression of his ideas. If at any time he paused for a moment, you could perceive by the glowing eye the thought burning within him, and could almost anticipate its general nature from the unconscious motions of his hands. He commenced his lecture with some abstruse distinctions between religion and philosophy, assigning in general, inspiration as the source of the one, and reflection of the other. He next proceeded to assert that religion is properly the cradle of philosophy; a fact which he illustrated from the history of the East, of Egypt, and of Greece. At length he came to Christianity, which he asserted to be the last and best, the consummation of all religions, . . . and the foundation of modern philosophy. . . . I never shall forget the animated dignity with which he made profession of his own belief in Christianity. Conscious that a majority of his brother *savans*, and perhaps of his audience, in heart, if not openly, would be inclined to sneer, and that his reputation as a philosopher, and among philosophers, was at stake, he seemed to erect his person and elevate his voice, and expand each glowing feature, as if in noble defiance of expected obloquy. He is accused by his enemies of a tendency to the exploded tenets of Plato, which means in reality, I suppose, a tendency to the spiritual and intellectual doctrines of revelation." Vol. II. pp. 182, 183.

We are strongly tempted to quote several other passages descriptive of persons connected with their active labors, in France, England, and Scotland, but we must forbear.

The extracts from lectures on Roman, Italian, and English literature, (which lectures, if published entire, we are told would fill an octavo volume of good size,) show with what remarkable readiness Mr. Griffin could apply his learning, and how much he could grasp in a very limited time. These lectures were composed and delivered to a class in Columbia College, New York, within the space of eight weeks, immediately after his return from Europe, and during the brief intervals of leisure which his general duties as an instructor in that institution, and the congratulatory visits of his numerous friends allowed him.

Whatever might be spared from these volumes, there would still be left a great amount of entertaining and useful knowledge. And no one can peruse them without deeply regretting the premature death of such an accomplished scholar and devout Christian.

ART. V. — *The Library of the Old English Prose Writers.*  
Vols. I. and II. Cambridge. Hilliard & Brown. 1831.  
16mo. pp. 227 and 341.

THE early English poets have been much more known to general readers than the prose writers. While the former have been published in collections more or less complete, and many of them in separate and elegant forms, recommended too by the labor of critics in notes and corrections of the text, and by extracts and biographical sketches, a considerable part of the old prose was rarely to be found but in its original form, and in the larger public and private libraries, where every thing is expected to be laid up, and where few but deep readers are supposed to go. This remark is not intended to apply to the works of one or two men of commanding minds, who have so impressed themselves upon the philosophy and literature of their countrymen, upon their very habits of thinking and inquiring, that they can never cease to be modern; nor of others of inferior force, whose subjects are so stirring at all times, that they are almost of necessity kept for ever before the public by one party or another in the church or in politics. We refer to the somewhat unobtrusive company of wits and moralists, and sound practical preachers, the chroniclers and observers, the satirists of the day, the shrewd and pedantic critics, — men of retirement and study, and of quiet, original, desultory reflection, who, with great intrinsic merit, besides being among the fathers of our literature, might yet gradually become unfashionable, and not be generally missed when they were out of the way.

Some reasons might be offered why they have been less generally known than many even of the early second-rate poets, yet none were of weight enough to deter authors from exploring them. For much hid treasure was to be found in them, which might be safely and usefully turned to account. Much was there that a patient investigator of truth could not prudently overlook in tracing the history of opinions and their changing aspects, and the close connexion between the seemingly careless suggestions of some early writer, and doctrines that are now in full credit, or else agitating the highest minds. Much was there, that the curiosity of the mere scholar would lead him to study with a zeal as ardent and as well recompensed, as was ever devoted to the more artfully wrought remains of ancient classical literature.

And in our times this zeal is more common, more general. Readers out of the student's cell, and never thinking of making a book, a lecture, or a review, have yet the patience to go through large venerable volumes for the thoughts' sake, and for the many indirect aids they may furnish in the professions; for the pleasure of exploring the heaps or disorderly profusion of facts, opinions, fancies, inventions, feelings, just as they crowded from the writer's mind; inviting us to such an exercise of our powers, if we would experience all their truth and beauty, and throw them into new, and it may be happier forms and groups, as nature herself inspires, as she lies beneath the eye of the smaller artist, man, who is to select and arrange, and think himself a creator.

Such thorough readers are the last to endure what are called the beauties of an author, and extracts to serve as specimens. They are thought to be delusive. They tell you only the critic's preference of this and that. A star may lose none of its beauty and even gain in solemnity, when seen alone, divided, as it were, from the populous realm of orbs to which it belongs. Not so with a fine literary fragment. A beautiful thought is here separated from much that would increase its beauty and effect; and more than this, you give it something of a character and value that does not belong to it in its place; and when you take up the whole work, as you may be tempted to do, you will be upon the look out for such passages all the time, and thus the rest of the book will be undervalued; and what you admired so much before may never pass afterwards for its true worth, from your having taken it for something it was not. And it may here be observed, that the American edition of the *Old Prose Writers* thus far gives us entire works, so that as far as we go, we have a fair view of a writer's genius, and are prepared for a thorough study of all his productions.

Some may think that one good effect of this publication will be to undeceive us as to the real worth of many a writer who has been ostentatiously referred to for years by learned men, as if he were their property, and they the only competent judges of his merit. Their word was the only pledge that his name should be celebrated among the many. Once there was a degree of mystery thrown over the less accessible books in our language, and a natural homage paid to what the initiated few alone could know. Thus, no doubt, a

great deal of vague, exaggerated, and factitious praise has been bestowed by some modern critics upon these obscure writings, in the belief that the public would never look into the matter. And the studious few, in their turn, may have had a false distinction conferred upon them for their exclusive possession of a supposed great secret. But let not the idolater tremble, nor the skeptic begin to exult. No rude violator has broken into the old darkened temple and found it full of consecrated vanities, which, in the pride of a discoverer, or the hearty love of truth, he is now for the first time bringing into open day for public derision. The older literature has never been forced upon the world. It has worked its own way out of the dusky alcove and the rare and heavy folio, to the notice of general and perhaps dainty readers, as well as of scholars, critics, and professional men. That prevailing activity of mind which makes men seek for truth in every direction, and for gratification in every variety of style and thought, has not only put the living upon endless inventions and novelties, but awakened our English dead to set forth fresher forms of thought and expression, closer sentences of practical wisdom, more luxuriant imagery, and more apt, though sometimes grotesque allusion, than their followers may readily match.

And even if these our less known ancients tell us much that is not new, either having been said before in Athens or Rome or elsewhere, or been made familiar to us in the writings of their later admirers, who have not scrupled to borrow as well as praise; and if their most remarkable sayings often take the form of brief, careless, unpretending hints, whose full import might have surprised their authors, and one of which in these days of complete views and expanded discussion, might fill a volume and establish a writer's name; yet all this should not and does not lessen our desire to see these men at work, to learn their ways, and listen to their very words. Their diction makes no small part of their originality, attractiveness, and value. Let the thought be nowise remarkable, yet it shall be expressed in a way, that will draw attention, and deepen impressions, make the mind busy upon related things, and see in a picture what in other writers might be only a floating generality, a bald abstraction, a truth to be admitted, but not felt or thought upon. And there is genius required for this as well as to conceive new things. And after longer acquaintance with the elder prose, we may



feel no alarm at the prospect of our modern English speech growing more picturesque and effective under the influence of the old masters, or rather the fearless children in our literature. We need not countenance the revival of an antiquated word or turn of expression ; — all that we want is that the spirit of these men should be upon us, and not that we should ape their manner, or borrow what was merely outward.

The first volume of the publication named at the head of this article, contains an account of the life and writings of Thomas Fuller, and his “*Holy and Profane State.*” It is published with great neatness, and in the most convenient shape ; and in all respects gives ample assurance that this edition of portions of the old English Prose Writers is in the hands of an able editor and of enterprising publishers. As this volume has been before the public for some time, and the subject of many favorable notices, we shall pass to the second, and give one moment to Sir Philip Sidney’s “*Defence of Poesy.*”

It may be asked, how could this “*Defence*” be needed in the reign of Elizabeth, the greatest poetical age of England. How could he, who, with Raleigh, was the friend and almost the idol of Spenser, have thought that such a man’s art required an apology. And as to the encouragement it might be supposed to offer to the great minds of the age, could Shakespeare have ever regarded Sir Philip’s views of dramatic poetry, and yet written plays that were so at variance with them ? To leave questions and come to the fact ; the young chevalier seems to have girded himself for a battle against the pride and narrowness of schoolmen, and the prejudices of the ignorant and bigoted, arraying against them learning, argument, expostulation, and satire ; and not forgetting gentle appeals to those who had not yet decidedly gone over to the barbarians. His enthusiasm and perfect assurance of the truth and importance of what he is saying are a little in the spirit of the discourse on Arms and Letters by another knight, his contemporary too, and as perfect a gentleman, and moreover an able vindicator of poetry, if we may judge from his views of that art in his conversation with the Knight of the Green Riding-Coat. Sir Philip has gone to his work with all his heart ; not to write a didactic treatise on poetry, as if such a work were no more called for then, than in the days of Aristotle, Horace, or Boileau ; but to correct a present fatal error in some, to prepare the eyes of many more to

look steadily on a new and powerful light ; in short, to accomplish a great purpose at that time, in the certainty that if his countrymen were once put in the right way, all would go on very well afterwards.

The object of this essay is to state the claims of poetry strongly, even to the putting down of history and philosophy, should they pretend to equal agency on the minds of men. "Neither philosophers nor historiographers," he says, "could, at the first, have entered into the gates of popular judgments, if they had not taken a great disport of poetry." In prosecuting this object, the ripe modern reader may see that Sir Philip has fallen into some puerilities ; some injustice to other studies ; some excess in pushing a simple thing too far, that barely deserved mentioning at all. In speaking of the different forms or classes of poetry, he does not always go enough into their essence or whole character. But he is full of spirit upon the one great point, that poetry is the power to move the mind, — to kindle and elevate, to mould and purify it ; to give impulse rather than direction, and pictures rather than facts and opinions.

"The philosopher with his learned definitions, be it of virtues or vices, matters of public policy or private government, replenisheth the memory with many infallible grounds of wisdom, which, notwithstanding, lie dark before the imaginative and judging power, if they be not illuminated or figured forth by the speaking picture of poesy." p. 25.

And again :

"To be moved to do that which we know, or to be moved with desire to know, herein of all sciences (I speak still of human, and according to the human conceit), is our poet the monarch. For he doth not only show the way, but giveth so sweet a prospect into the way, as will entice any man to enter into it : nay, he doth, as if your journey should lie through a fair vineyard, at the very first give you a cluster of grapes, that full of that taste you may long to pass farther. He beginneth not with obscure definitions, which must blur the margin with interpretations, and load the memory with doubtfulness, but he cometh to you with words set in delightful proportion, either accompanied with, or prepared for, the well-enchancing skill of music ; and with a tale, forsooth, he cometh unto you, with a tale which holdeth children from play, and old men from the chimney-corner ; and, pretending no more, doth intend the winning of the mind from wickedness to virtue ; even as the child is often

brought to take most wholesome things, by hiding them in such other as have a pleasant taste ; which, if one should begin to tell them the nature of the aloes or rhubarbarum they should receive, would sooner take their physic at their ears than at their mouth : so is it in men ; (most of whom are childish in the best things, till they be cradled in their graves), glad they will be to hear the tales of Hercules, Achilles, Cyrus, Æneas ; and hearing them, must needs hear the right description of wisdom, valor, and justice ; which, if they had been barely, that is to say, philosophically, set out, they would swear they be brought to school again." pp. 35, 36.

It would be hardly fair, if there were room, to select more from this little treatise, which every one will read ; and we leave it with grateful remembrance of the author's wit and devotedness, of his animated and joyous descriptions, and of the beauties of language that are scattered over the whole ; of words and phrases which, however antiquated, have yet, to us who are little accustomed to them, the newness and gloss of youth, and the greater force and spirit, because they are free from every thing like common-place.

The immediate effect of the "Defence" may not be easily settled. But we may believe, that so much excellent, generous sentiment, warmly and yet reasonably set forth, and coming from a courtier, knight, scholar, and poet, the loved and admired of all, may have done much to give dignity to an art, which, from his own account, appears to have been in little popular esteem, and which he is constrained to call, "this now scorned skill."

The remainder of the volume is taken up with John Selden's "Table-Talk," a writer who flourished in the first half of the seventeenth century. What would Philip Sidney have made of such a man as Selden ? Courteous as he was, and an admirer of profound learning, still could he have pardoned such a view of poetry as this, come from whom it might ?

"'T is a fine thing for children to learn to make verse ; but when they come to be men, they must speak like other men, or else they will be laughed at. 'T is ridiculous to speak, or write, or preach in verse. As 't is good to learn to dance : a man may learn his leg, learn to go handsomely ; but 't is ridiculous for him to dance when he should go.

"'T is ridiculous for a lord to print verses : 't is well enough to make them to please himself, but to make them public is foolish. If a man in a private chamber twirls his band-strings,

or plays with a rush to please himself, 't is well enough ; but if he should go into Fleet-street, and sit upon a stall, and twirl a band-string, or play with a rush, then all the boys in the street would laugh at him.

"Verse proves nothing but the quantity of syllables ; they are not meant for logic." Vol. II. pp. 230, 231.

The "Table-Talk" is a collection of remarks, &c., that fell from Selden in familiar conversation, and were preserved by his secretary. They are probably well enough reported. They certainly have a marked character throughout. The wit and humor, sometimes a little homely and cynical, the strong sense, the sturdy independence, the easy use of learning, the knowledge of every thing that is going on, and a clear opinion about it, — these all belong to one and the same man. But the reader will be most likely to remember his dry, pleasant way of saying grave things ; as in these passages :

"A king outed of his country, that takes as much upon him as he did at home, in his own court, is as if a man on high, and I being upon the ground, used to lift up my voice to him, that he might hear me, at length should come down, and then expects I should speak as loud to him as I did before." Vol. II. p. 186.

"Old friends are best. King James used to call for his old shoes ; they were easiest to his feet." p. 169.

"'T was an unhappy division that has been made between faith and works. Though in my intellect I may divide them, just as in the candle I know there is both light and heat, but yet put out the candle and they are both gone." p. 165.

"Catholics say, we out of our charity believe they of the church of Rome may be saved, but they do not believe so of us ; therefore their church is better according to ourselves. Is that an argument their church is better than ours, because it has less charity ?" p. 141.

Our observations and selections have been necessarily brief ; and we should feel more regret for having given so slight a view of two remarkable men, if we could not refer our readers to the sketch, which the editor has placed before each work, of the life and writings of the author, and sufficiently full, both in facts and criticism, to prepare one for what is to follow.

ART. VI. — *A New Translation of the Psalms, with an Introduction*, by GEORGE R. NOYES. Boston. Gray & Bowen. 1831. 12mo. pp. xxviii and 232.

THE author of this translation is the same distinguished scholar who published "An Amended Version of the Book of Job," in 1827; a version which was very favorably received and deservedly commended. For, while great respect was shown to the language and style of the common version, which are endeared to us by habit, those obscurities in this version which arose from not duly regarding our vernacular idioms, and from false notions of fidelity, and sometimes from misconception of the original, were removed, to give place to expressions always intelligible, and founded in patient, critical inquiry.

We are pleased to find that Mr. Noyes has proceeded farther in this kind of critical labor on the same principles, and that he has applied it to the Book of Psalms; a book so dear to every devout reader of the Bible; containing so many hymns fraught with devotional sentiment and fervor, and suited to the solemn services of those who worship the same God, in all ages of the world.

In the Introduction to his version, Mr. Noyes speaks of the character and value of the Psalms, of the authors, of the titles, of the collection, and the division into books, and of the means of understanding the compositions.

All persons of taste, apart from the pious uses of the Psalms, are sufficiently agreed in estimating their poetical excellences. These are various; and the hymns proceeded from different authors. It may well be supposed, that, in general, they are the productions of the persons whose names they bear; and it might have been so in their origin; but some confusion has taken place in this respect, and the authorship is not always determined with certainty by the inscriptions. Those which are not ascribed to any author are by some attributed to David; but this notion has arisen from his being most prominent among the authors. There is another part of the inscriptions prefixed to many of the Psalms, which indicate the kind of composition; or the occasion and subject of the hymn; or something pertaining to the music, to the chief performer, or to the accompanying instruments. All

this is consonant with the practice of ancient, Oriental poets ; but how far the inscriptions are to be relied on in the case before us, is not agreed among biblical critics. These subjects, as well as the means of understanding the Psalms, are discussed by Mr. Noyes with clearness and brevity. Among the means of understanding the Psalms, he enumerates the importance of some knowledge of Jewish antiquities ; of the subject, occasion, and author of the psalm ; and of the character of Oriental poetry, abounding in the use of figurative and metaphorical language, far beyond that of the Western world.

The translator has given good evidence of his own knowledge in these particulars, and of his attention to them in the accomplishment of his work. No careful reader can compare his translation with the common version, to any considerable extent, without perceiving that many ambiguous expressions are altered for such as are clear, and many apparently unmeaning ones, for such as give a definite sense. Now this is far better than to leave the ambiguous or unmeaning expressions, as if it were for the purpose of trying the skill of the English reader. The whole ground of criticism is still left open no less than it was before ; and in case of mistake or failure, no graver charge rests upon the translator, than that of fallibility.

We subjoin a single specimen from Mr. Noyes's translation, to verify our remarks, so far as one example will do it, concerning his improvements on the common version.

- “ 1. The heavens declare the glory of God ;  
The firmament showeth forth the work of his hands.
2. Day uttereth instruction to day  
And night showeth knowledge to night.
3. They have no speech, nor language,  
And their voice is not heard ;
4. Yet their sound goeth forth to all the earth,  
And their words to the ends of the world.” *Psalm xix.*

“ *Note. V. 2. Day uttereth instruction to day, i. e. One day gives the lesson of praise to God to the following.*”

Here it will be seen that the ambiguity of the phrases “ day unto day ” and “ night unto night ” is removed. A wholly different sense is given to the beginning of the third verse, and, as we are satisfied, the true sense. The beautiful personification of the material world is preserved, without any

real inconsistency. Though this sublime system does not utter audible, articulate sounds, it is still vocal with instruction, every where proclaiming the majesty and glory of the Creator.

Concerning a word in the fourth verse ; their *line* is gone out, — their *sound* goeth forth, — there has been a diversity of opinion among critics. The primary meaning of the original word is a *line*, or *measuring line* ; and in a sense not more remote than the meaning of various words deduced by inference, a *chord* or *string* of a musical instrument ; and hence the sound itself, here used figuratively no doubt ; for the actual sound, or the music of the spheres, though an old imagination, and described so remarkably in Cicero's account of Scipio's dream, is by no one, we believe, pretended to be signified by the words of the Psalmist.

We take leave of this valuable work, by recommending it to every studious and intelligent reader of the Bible, if not as a substitute for the common version, at least as an important aid in understanding this version.

ART. VII. — 1. *An Essay on Junius and his Letters ; embracing a Sketch of the Life and Character of William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, and Memoirs of certain other Distinguished Individuals ; with Reflections Historical, Personal, and Political, relating to the Affairs of Great Britain and America, from 1763 to 1785.* By BENJAMIN WATERHOUSE, M. D., &c. Boston. Gray & Bowen. 1831. 8vo. pp. 449.

2. *Letters on Junius, addressed to John Pickering, Esq. showing that the Author of that celebrated Work was Earl Temple.* By ISAAC NEWHALL. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1831. pp. lxxxiv and 276.

If the real Junius has not yet been discovered, it is not because few have made the attempt, nor because there has been any lack of public interest and curiosity. Numbers, both in England and in our own country, have labored on the question with abundant industry and zeal ; and during the past year, the two works named at the head of this article have been published in our own neighbourhood, evincing critical skill and the confidence of successful effort.

The Letters of Junius were in great repute at the time they were written, partly from their inherent value, and partly from the circumstance of mystery that belonged to them. They were important in themselves; for they discussed with the ability of a master, in the style of a classical scholar, the doctrine of kingly prerogative and the rights of the Commons; and while they yielded to the throne all it could justly claim, they boldly defended in its full extent the liberty of the subject. Hence they possess a measure of excellence that will secure their claim to a continued existence after the discovery of the author has allayed the excitement of curiosity.

At present, however, these letters possess an artificial distinction from the mere fact, that the writer has hitherto so completely baffled the general scrutiny. His proportions appear great, and widen on every side, as objects in the dark, with their undefined outlines, swell far beyond the boundaries of truth. Impatience and wonder seize upon us, and we become more anxious to know the secret, because it is a secret, than because it is of any particular value when known. Junius himself, apart from every consideration of personal safety, was aware of the accidental consequence of the *nomini umbra*; when writing to Wilkes, he says, "At present there is something oracular in the delivery of my opinions. I speak from a recess which no human curiosity can penetrate." The mystery of Junius increases his importance.

Who is this same Junius, the almost faultless writer of English, so vigorous, comprehensive, and terse; full of beauty, and rich in allusion; so happy in diction; so fertile and crowded in his conceptions, but never wasting his treasures, and never aside of his object? Who is this same Junius, who, in the midst of an inquisitive and highly cultivated people, year after year, dared attack the most powerful men in the kingdom, whether for wealth, rank, or office; exposing their personal and political sins,—the secrets of state and the counsels of majesty; breaking his lance against every invader of the constitution, and bearding the monarch upon his throne? Who is this Junius, who so long and so successfully evaded every attempt of numerous and active enemies to discover him? We do not say it is fully proved who he is; but the negative evidence is satisfying. He is not Boyd, Burke, Hamilton, Francis, Dyer, Lloyd, Sackville, nor any



one of those who heretofore have had warm supporters of their claims.

Most of those who have written upon the subject, have collected and collated a few circumstances either agreeing with their preconceived notions, or else, perhaps, giving birth to these notions, and have incontinently applied these results of their labors to one or another individual, exclaiming, "Thou art the man." But we must recollect that every one possessed of a favorite theory requires to be strictly watched, like one who is in a state of *démence*; for *per fas aut nefas* he will make every thing yield to his cherished opinions, and will forget how possible it is that he may stand in a false position. In illustration of this we will merely remark, that Dr. Waterhouse many years ago became fully convinced that Chatham wrote Junius, by contemplating the panegyric of that nobleman in the Fifty-fourth letter of Junius. And at a later day, Mr. Newhall saw, in Heron's edition of that work, the portrait of Earl Temple, fronting the title-page, although he did not recollect that Temple's name was once mentioned in the letters. Hence he was immediately inclined to ascribe the letters to Temple, and further investigation satisfied him that he was right.

We propose to give, as briefly as we can, the principal arguments by which our authors have been led to different conclusions.

Dr. Waterhouse has made a very entertaining and discursive book, one half of which perhaps is taken up in discussing the principal question, while the rest furnishes the reader with sketches of the distinguished politicians of the period, interspersed with various reflections. He declares his opinion that Junius must have been past the meridian of life, of noble rank, rich, powerful, and patriotic; and that his letters are *exclusively English*; that, as it regards his political opinions, there is but a mere shadow of difference between Junius and Chatham, while in the soul-stirring pride, the wounded feeling, the consciousness of injury, the bitter spirit of invective, and adequate motives, they are absolutely identified. We infer also, from the general tenor of his work, his belief that no one but Chatham was in every respect competent to the task. But the main argument, and the one which he thinks conclusive and unanswerable in favor of Chatham's claims, Dr. Waterhouse derives from several striking resem-

blances between the acknowledged speeches of that nobleman, and the letters of Junius ;— resemblances not merely in style, but in moral sentiment, in the sustained current of thought, in metaphor and figure. So strong is our author in his persuasion, that after quoting parallel passages from Mr. Taylor's work, who labored to prove Sir Philip Francis to be the writer of the letters, he adds ;

“ Here the words, *sentiments*, and *train of thought* exactly accord with *Lord Chatham*, although Junius anticipated his Lordship by several months. Now if *our hypothesis* do not absolutely blind us, nay, stupefy us, what we have here transcribed approaches to demonstration. As it regards the industrious compiler, Mr. Taylor, it shows how near men sometimes come to a discovery, and yet miss it. It has been so with some of our most useful inventions. Shall I, at this late period of my life, add to the number of the hypothetically blind ?” pp. 290, 291.

We have not space to quote the parallel passages, and must be content therefore merely to make a few observations upon them. Between several of the passages there is a striking resemblance ; but this remark by no means applies to all of them ; and the value of this species of evidence is overrated. There are so many points in common in the style of different writers, not simply in the general characteristics, but also in modes and terms of expression, that we may draw almost any deduction from the fact to suit our particular purpose. It is matter of daily observation that we attribute to one or another distinguished writer a leading article in a public print, or a more elaborate effort in a literary journal, judging from the general characteristics, or from the modes and turns of expression, and often find we mistake. We perhaps possess advantageous means and opportunities of forming a correct opinion, and after all are equally at fault with others.

Take another example. A question of political moment is brought forward ; it is discussed in newspapers and pamphlets ; it elicits the eloquence of the legislative hall ; it fills the general ear ; it is talked of by all ranks and classes, becomes of deep and absorbing interest ; speeches, remarks, and essays, are published, treating the question in every point of view. Parties are formed under the banners of active leaders, and every writer chooses one of two sides. Compare these writings on either part and we shall find that the

general discussion has produced a striking similarity, not merely in the particular phrases, but in moral sentiment and in the general train of thought, and we may add also in metaphor and figure.

In applying these remarks to Junius, we assume, what we believe true, that the writer was a man of rank and of leading political influence, and if not a member of the house of Lords, that he was frequently present there, and was well acquainted with the debates. If to this we add that he was of the same general school in politics with Chatham, and had been associated with him in public office and in private friendship, we are able, without straining a point, to account for similar modes of treating political topics. The popular questions that were then under discussion and heaved the empire to its centre, were the expulsion of John Wilkes from the House of Commons, general warrants, the conduct of ministers, the encroachments of prerogative, the rights of the subject, and the political relation of the American colonies to the parent country. Here then were leading statesmen, men of education, who had long associated together, who had formed similar views and opinions on most political and constitutional subjects. The letters of Junius were eagerly read by friend and foe; they were feared by the latter and admired as specimens of masterly composition by both. The speeches of Chatham produced a thrilling influence, and were received with delight and lastingly remembered by all who heard them. For they were remarkable for vigorous thought, eloquently expressed, and inlaid with the richest ornaments and the most striking illustration.

In this point of view it matters not whether the speeches or the letters had precedence in respect of time. The same coal of fire that touched one, enkindled the other, and the genial flame warmed and cherished both. If the speech was first pronounced, the same spirit afterwards imbued Junius. If the letter was first published, occasional similar traits may be discovered in the subsequent speech.

Parallel passages, we repeat it, are not in our opinion strict proof. They are a frequent but inconsequential argument. The American writer who three years since attempted to prove that Lord Sackville was Junius, cited passages from the letters, and from an address of Sackville, and proved to his own satisfaction, and with plausibility too, the identity of

the two writers; not merely from similarity in style, but from frequent resemblance in the train of thought. And in the same way attempts have been made to fasten the authorship upon others.

Sir James Mackintosh remarks, in the Edinburgh Review, that "whoever revives the inquiry of the authorship of Junius, unless he discover positive and irresistible evidence in support of his claimant, should show him to be politically attached to the Grenville party, which Junius certainly was." \* Dr. Waterhouse states as his opinion, that Junius was not politically attached to George Grenville; and cites a passage from his letters to prove it. But this passage we think is far from conclusive; and on the other hand, we might quote a long passage from his Miscellaneous Letters,† proving satisfactorily that he defended the stamp act. It is true, also, that he was with Grenville in opinion on the *right* of the British parliament to tax America, and on the subject of the Middlesex election. It is pretty clear also, that there was a warm, hearty, personal friendship between them.

On the other hand, there is something more than a *mere shadow of difference* between Junius and Chatham. Chatham denied absolutely the right of taxing the Americans without their consent, holding to the American doctrine of taxation and representation. Junius as absolutely asserts the *right* but denies the *expediency*. And so did the Marquis of Rockingham. Junius indeed considered it a speculative right, never to be exerted, nor ever to be renounced, and that all reasonings which were employed against that power *went directly to their whole legislative right*. It was an absolute actual right, but never to be exercised, because it would be *impolitic*. On other questions Junius and Chatham were generally agreed.

One thing further we would briefly consider in our remarks upon the claim set up for Lord Chatham. Several letters were published under various signatures in 1767 and 1768, which are now entitled the Miscellaneous Letters of Junius. The first, signed *Poplicola*, is filled with the most bitter abuse of Chatham; he is called *purely and perfectly bad*; full of *artifices, intrigues, hypocrisy, and impudence*;

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\* Review of Icon Basilike. June, 1826.

† Miscellaneous Letters, No. xxix.

with an affectation of prostrate humility in the closet, but a lordly dictation of terms to the people. He is charged with having for his great object the absolute destruction of the people, with attempting to level all ranks, and to invade the rights of property, and with actually suspending the established laws by proclamation. A gibbet, the writer adds, in reference to Chatham, is not too honorable a situation for the carcase of a traitor. Again, in the fifth of the Miscellaneous Letters, signed *Correggio*, Chatham is called a lunatic brandishing a crutch or bawling through a grate, or writing with desperate charcoal a letter to North America. In the eleventh letter, signed *Downright*, the writer remarks thus: *This country does owe more to Chatham than it can repay; for to him we owe the greatest part of our national debt; I cannot bear to see so much incense offered to an idol who so little deserves it.* Remarks of equal and perhaps greater severity, are found in those of the Miscellaneous Letters signed, *Anti-Sejanus Jun.*, *Lucius*, *Atticus*, and others; but we think the passages we have referred to will satisfy our readers.

If then the Miscellaneous Letters were written by Junius, as is universally admitted, it is manifest that Junius and Chatham were different persons, for the merest villain would not vilify and degrade himself by such abuse; much less would a high-minded, proud-spirited man, like the noble Chatham. This very material part of the question is not discussed by Dr. Waterhouse, and the objection, as it seems to us, is fatal to his hypothesis. He has unquestionably succeeded in making a very clever book, and he manifests an intimate acquaintance with the history of that period; but he has failed in making out his proofs of authorship.

The other work to which we have alluded, by Mr. Newhall, of Salem, is written to prove Earl Temple to have been the author of the letters. Mr. Newhall writes with much simplicity, ease, and strength, and we should think must make a favorable impression upon the public. Our remarks upon his work must be brief.

Our readers are generally aware that Earl Temple, a member of the House of Lords, was elder brother to the celebrated George Grenville, who is so intimately connected with our early revolutionary story. Mr. Newhall remarks upon the evident friendship between Junius and Grenville,

and makes use of many of the same arguments in support of the claim of Temple, that Dr. Waterhouse advances in favor of Chatham. Junius and Temple were both strenuous for triennial parliaments; and indeed Dr. Waterhouse admits that their opinions were in perfect accordance. Temple though a prominent member of Chatham's administration, is not once mentioned in the letters, and only occasionally, and as it were, accidentally, in the notes. He was a friend to Wilkes and joined with him in the North Briton.

But Mr. Newhall's principal argument is drawn from the relation, personal and political, existing between Temple and Chatham. It will be recollected that Temple was First Lord of the Admiralty, from 1756, with a short intermission, till 1761, the period of the war with France, when the British arms were eminently successful. In July, 1766, an attempt was made to form a new ministry under the direction of these two noblemen; but Chatham insisted upon naming all the members of the cabinet himself, and introducing several who were personally disagreeable to Temple;—to this the latter would not submit. The conference lasted some time and finally was broken off by him, for he would not permit Chatham to be *sole and absolute dictator*, and observed that he *thought himself ill-treated* by him. From this time all intercourse was broken off between them till November, 1768; and a most bitter enmity ensued. At this last period, Chatham was out of office, and a reconciliation very soon took place between them.

Our readers will notice these dates and the intermediate and subsequent occurrences. The separation between Chatham and Temple took place in July, 1766. In the following month the *Enquiry into the Conduct of a late Right Honorable Commoner* was published. This pamphlet is known to have been in substance the work of Temple. It attacks Chatham in terms of unmeasured severity for accepting office under Lord Bute. In the following year the Miscellaneous Letters were commenced, abounding as we have seen, in merciless crimination of Chatham. The reconciliation between Chatham and Temple was brought about by the intercession of a mutual friend, late in 1768. The first letter signed Junius is dated January, 1769, and his tone towards Chatham immediately alters, and is more and more tinged with suavity, till in the fifty-fourth letter he breaks forth in

his celebrated panegyric. The argument thence drawn by Mr. Newhall is very strong in favor of Temple, and he makes the most of it. Also, so far as the train of thought and sundry verbal resemblances prove identity, Mr. Newhall has been tolerably successful.

Dr. Waterhouse remarks, that "Earl Temple was replete with Whig principles, had full enough ardor, independence, and resentful feelings, but he *wanted the talents* for such a display of them as Junius has made." The "Enquiry" shows talents equal to the letters, without however the finish of style of the letters; and the difference may be easily accounted for by the skill derived from further practice, and more especially from the circumstance that the Enquiry was not in so many words written by Temple, but was in substance communicated to another person, who prepared it for the press. Contemporaneous history also fully sustains us in the belief of the sufficiency of Temple's talents for the elaboration of the letters. He and Lord Camden were believed by many to *know* the author. Mr. Newhall has made out a strong case, and we are inclined with our present lights to adopt his conclusions.

We of course do not pretend to give all the arguments advanced by our authors, nor to present in any detail the numerous observations that might be derived from them. It is said that papers have within a few years been discovered at Stowe, the residence of the late Earl Temple, which identify the real Junius, and that the author is not among those to whom the letters have heretofore been attributed. Nothing further is publicly known relating to the papers, and the injunction of secrecy, it is said, is to continue during the life of the present aged Lord Grenville. This certainly is an argument for Earl Temple; and if the story be true in its full extent, the world will ere long know the truth; curious inquiry need shed no more ink; for the letters of Junius will receive the genuine stamp of authorship; all artificial and temporary considerations will disappear, and history will attach to them their fair and real estimate.

ART. VIII. — *Poems* by ALONZO LEWIS. Boston. John H. Eastburn. 1831. 12mo. pp. 208.

THE name of Mr. Lewis is somewhat familiar to the public as the historian of Lynn, projector of sundry maps, charts, &c., and an occasional contributor to the *Annals*. To the accuracy of his maps of Lynn and Saugus, we can in part testify; of his skill as an instructor, report speaks favorably; as an historian, he has been lauded a little too much. His style is labored and verbose, swelling at every convenient chance, into a sonorous poetico-prosaic fulness, which has been pronounced by some critics to be a union of historical research with the exquisite language of poetry. Yielding to the syren voice of flattery, he has been tempted to put forth the above-named volume, containing 208 pages of poetry, so called, heralded by a lithographic print of himself, done, we are happy to say, in Mr. Pendleton's best style, together with the fac-simile of an autograph, written, we are also happy to say, in Mr. Lewis's best copy-hand. In thus appearing before the public, the poet has clearly "put the best face on the matter," and asserts no inconsiderable pretensions to beauty, if Mr. Pendleton is a trustworthy engraver. We are gratified to notice that he does not, like most rhymesters, since the days of Byron, turn down his collar, and expose his neck, which, whatever it may be elsewhere, is exceedingly uncomfortable, not to say dangerous, in our fickle climate of colds, influenzas, and northeasters. The thing, moreover, looks too much like a presentiment of the halter. But Mr. Alonzo Lewis ties his cravat like a Christian and a gentleman.

In the Preface our author says; "That the contents of the following pages *alone* will entitle their author to the glorious appellation of poet, I scarcely dare hope, though it may well be remembered, that 'a man may be a poet without being Homer.'" The propriety of the doubt expressed in the first, and of the observation in the last part of the sentence, nobody can question. But we must say, we are as much inclined to believe the doubt well founded as the remark, and that it is, in respect to the "*Poems*," much more applicable. The moral tone of these productions is high and pure. Mr. Lewis is a true-hearted man, and that is no small praise. It will secure him the respect and affection of the circle in which he



moves,— and that is enough for happiness and usefulness. But it is one thing to be a good man, and quite another thing to be a good poet; and it is with Mr. Lewis the poet, alone, that we have to do.

It was an ill-starred hour when the bard of Lynn first yielded to the temptations of type. The labor of working out so much rhyme, without the impetus and inspiration of poetical genius, must have been immense. A more flagitious “assault and battery” upon the sacred Nine, the records of the court of criticism cannot furnish, except perhaps Dr. Emmons’s immortal production in four stout octavos, the *Fredoniad*;— though we believe that has never been presented by the grand jury of Parnassus. Mr. Lewis is not gifted with a clear perception, power of copious illustration, rapid combination, and pointed expression. His mind cannot range over nature and art and intellect, and concentrate upon the object of his meditations a bright cluster of analogous thoughts. His language is not the natural and beautiful outward expression, of natural and beautiful intellectual forms within; and, thus destitute of the elements of poetry, how could his attempt at poetical immortality be less than a signal and melancholy failure?

The two longest poems in the volume are entitled “Shady Grove,” and the “Schoolmaster.” We are informed in a note, that “the term Shady Grove is not an invention of the poet’s fancy, but the name of a place beautiful as the valley of Agra, beneath whose trees glides a rivulet delightful as Yarrow; a scene which need only to have echoed the harp of Hafiz or of Burns, to have become associated with the dearest ideas of poetry and love.” The following lines stand near the beginning of “Shady Grove.”

“Oft have I climbed that pine clad hill,  
When day was bright, and all was still,  
*And thought, how lonely it would be*  
*Did no one live in the world with me!*  
For though it is pleasant—this beautiful earth  
With its birds and flowers of heavenly birth;  
And though it is fair—yon wide, deep sea,  
Which seems a thing that is living, like me!  
And though ’t is sublime—yon dark blue sky,  
With its numberless orbs, that roll so high,  
Which make us sigh to be clothed with wings  
To drink of their pure, untasted springs;  
*Yet, oh, how desolate it would be,*  
*Did no one live in the world with me!”* p. 25.

Why, to be sure, a man living alone on this huge round earth must now and then feel a little "lonely"; but it is hardly necessary to climb a pine-clad hill to perceive how desolate he would find himself, "did no one live in the world" with him, though it is a tolerably pleasant place, and has as good accommodations as any reasonable man could expect. As to the "birds and flowers of heavenly birth," we are at a loss to comprehend them. How birds which are hatched and fledged in their nests, and flowers which grow in fields and gardens, can be said to be of *heavenly birth*, we do not see, unless to make a rhyme with *earth*; and we strongly suspect this line was coaxed into its place after a long and somewhat solemn pause. And though "the numberless orbs that roll so high" do, truly enough, "make us sigh to be clothed with wings," we cannot help entertaining serious doubts as to the proposition that it is all for the sake of "drinking from their pure untasted springs," because we have a plenty of that necessary and wholesome beverage, good spring water, without going so far for it. In the next stanza a love story begins, which seems to have confused the poet's ideas of time somewhat, for in the first line we have; "When the *Summer* sun is set," &c., and a few lines below mention is made of the "little birds that sing, In the merry time of *Spring*," &c., in reference to the same evening. We have also, "the stars in heaven are set," and "the moon is in the sky," and in the very next stanza,

"sheeted phantoms leave their tomb  
To wander through the *lurid gloom*" —

by moonlight.

Again,

"When *not a breeze* is heard to sweep  
The trees that *sigh* round *Lover's Leap*,"

\* \* \* \*

A pensive maid is seen to rove;  
Permitting thus the *chilling air*  
To wanton with her flowing hair,"

which is learnedly illustrated in a note by a reference to Virgil's *Dederatque comam diffundere ventis*. Now we submit, that the thing here spoken of cannot be done by the "chilling air," or by any kind of air, when no air is stirring, unless the maiden contrives to "raise a breeze" by running at

a good round rate, which, we opine, is not the wont of "pensive maidens," at midnight. Then comes a pathetic description of this lonely damsel of Shady Grove, — whose name by the way is Ermina, and whose charms the poet pledges his word neither Southey, nor Byron, nor Mrs. Hemans, nor Miss Landon, nor Wordsworth, nor Scott, "could ever tell." We will not endanger our reader's peace of mind by quoting the lines. It must be a wondrous place — that Lynn; and Lover's Leap also — "about a mile from the Lynn Hotel." We quote this fact because of the convenience to visitors from a distance, of having a place to put up their horses.

Under these extraordinary circumstances, amidst the lurid gloom of a *moonlit* night, when the stars are in heaven, after "a summer evening," and when the birds of spring are asleep, and not a breeze is heard in the *sighing* trees, and the air is sporting with her locks,

"the sad maid of Shady Grove  
Thus trills her pensive lay of love.

"SONG.

"Oh Love! thou art a joyous thing,  
In this cold world of ours!  
And yet how oft thy wayward wing  
Leaves thorns instead of flowers!" p. 28.

The young lady's idea of Cupid's wing must have been derived from a picture of the hedge-hog, in the "First Lessons." Anacreon, Petrarch, and Mr. Thomas Moore, have nothing in the erotic line at all comparable to this porcupine personification of Love with thorns in his wings, instead of flowers.

After a while the maiden, whose lover is absent in the wars, gets into a bad way for a damsel of Lynn, and must have sorely perplexed the good people of that sober town.

"Ermina wanders by the rocks,  
And hears afar the howling fox.  
But vapors on her bosom press,  
And night dews give their cold caress;  
Till sickness *drinks* her vital breath,  
And life *hangs* o'er the *verge* of death.  
Sleep flies before her weary eyes,  
And darkness *drinks* her midnight sighs.  
Her mind is in yon fairy realm,  
Where ships sail on without a helm.  
She sees a throne all dazzling bright." p. 29.

The reader will observe a singularly poetical idea in the figurative language of some of these lines. Sickness and Darkness are personified as a couple of hard drinkers, mercilessly swallowing the poor girl's breath and sighs, and "life" naturally enough "hangs o'er the verge of death"; whereupon her mind wanders straightway to a strange region, in which ships sail without a helm, and where she sees a throne all dazzling bright. Now, either the ships must have sailed over land, which would have been extraordinary with or without a helm, or the throne must have been erected in the midst of the sea. In the *Odyssey*, Homer makes the fleet of his hero sail without canvass, helm, or compass; but then he had a plenty of sea-room, and that makes a great difference. A messenger is sent to the recreant knight to inform him of the sad condition of his "ladye love"; but alas! we are left in the dark as to the success of his gentle embassy; for the poet here drops the curtain, and invites us to "roam through Shady Grove" and view "the charms that round us lie,"

"The columbine and marigold,  
The dandelion, *bright and bold.*"

And after singing "a song" of four stanzas, exclaims,

"Oh, had I such poetic fire  
As animated Byron's lyre,  
How would I sing the joys of love,  
And sketch the charms of *Shady Grove!*"

Then comes something about Byron, Zuleika, Kaled, Conrad, Gulnare, Thyrza, Passion, Despair, Virtue, and Shakspeare.

In a stanza on Solitude, in "Shady Grove," it is said,

"Great Washington, and Chatham bold,  
Whose hands the reins of state could hold,  
Retired from courts."

Here is probably an example of the figure of speech called *ὑστερον πρότερον*, or *cart-before-the-horse*. We presume the epithets should be mentally reversed, and the lines will run thus:

*Bold* Washington and Chatham *great*,  
Whose hands could hold the reins of *state*.

Such passages need a little explanation, because most readers,

taking the horse to be before the cart, are apt to upset the meaning, without some hint to the contrary.

In stanza xxii,

“The moon is rising o’er the sea,  
Round as the fruit of orange-tree,”

we apprehend must be a corruption of the genuine text by some blundering copyist or compositor, which *undoubtedly* was written thus :

The moon is rising o’er the brine  
Round as the fruit of pumpkin-vine.

The reasons in support of this reading are, 1. The word *brine* for briny ocean, is *frequently* used by our author in other passages (*vide* Poems, *passim*), and *therefore* ought to have been used here ; 2. The moon and a pumpkin are as much alike as two peas, being of the same color and about the same size. But the moon is considerably larger than an orange, and though it is allowable *parva componere magnis*, it is never *magna componere parvis*. For these convincing reasons we have no doubt our emendation will be adopted when a second edition shall be called for.

“How oft upon that golden moon,  
On some sweet eve of pleasant June,  
When all the scene with beauty shone,  
The Indian maid has gazed alone,  
While waiting for her chief *sincere*,  
Returning from the hunt of deer !  
Dark Maiden ! thou art sleeping now,  
Beneath yon tall cliff’s moonlit brow,  
And I could tell the thrilling tale,  
That made thy fair brow first look pale !” p. 41.

We would give more than the stipulated price of common shows and sights, to see a *dark* Indian maiden with a *fair* brow turning *pale* at anything.

By way of variety we are next treated to a wedding.

“And manhood’s pledge is given fond,  
Which blushing beauty doth respond ;  
And hearts that long have been but one,  
Are bound — *no more to be undone* !” p. 42.

What is a *done* heart ? Among other nuptial paraphernalia, is a minstrel, after the manner of chivalry and Border times.

We are surprised to learn that those ancient customs are still observed in the good town of Lynn. It shows that Mr. Burke was in the wrong when he uttered the oft repeated assertion, "The days of chivalry are gone." It seems the bride had

"asked of him the nuptial song,  
And offered him the cheerful wine,  
To add its vigor to his line,  
He took the cup — that pensive man —  
And drank the wine, and thus began." p. 43.

We fear from the song which follows, if it be well and truly reported, the minstrel "took a drop too much." He talks about the smiles of memory, and a "long, *deep*" — dram, — is it? — no, "dream," and growing more and more misty, exclaims,

"Though darkest ills may oft entwine  
Their sorrows round this heart of mine,  
Till *every finer feeling shake*,  
And all its noblest chords may break." p. 45.

Now there are but few situations in which a man's feelings may be said to shake; but "the cup," which the "pensive" gentleman so readily took, explains the phenomenon in the present instance.

In "The Schoolmaster," we have some twenty or thirty pages concerning the labors, joys, sorrows, &c. of the pedagogue, with honorable mention of Thales, Plato, Aristippus, Dionysius, Louis-Philippe, Milton, Beattie, Dr. Dwight, Wilson, and others. These gentlemen being disposed of, a tenderer strain comes softly on the ear, all about the loves of Henry Otway, schoolmaster, and Mary Eaton, "a farmer's daughter." A brilliant description of the maiden, whose charms melted the philosophic heart of Mr. Otway, ends with the following graphic lines.

"No costly jewels flaunted round her neck;  
She showed no art her symmetry to deck;  
Her hair was wreathed with gracefulness and taste,  
And a slight girdle bound her slender waist;  
A purple mantle flowed around her feet,  
And all she wore was negligently neat.  
But yet the most observant eye could find  
No fault that showed a carelessness of mind.

All was appropriate, yet all was plain,  
 No gaudy riband, and no tinsel vain,  
 Yet if one trait might more attention suit,  
*It was the striking neatness of her foot."* p. 74.

This reminds us of a pathetic stanza we remember to have read in the "Tonewanta Bower of Sentiment."

" 'T was at the hour of eventide,  
 When every thought to Heaven 's allied,  
 I wandered forth to meet my dear,  
*And found her sitting right down here."*

Henry Otway — lucky dog — had the good fortune to win the affections of this lady, who "played her *artless pranks*" on the bright banks of the Merrimack. How surprisingly must these "pranks" have been set off by "the striking neatness of her foot." No wonder Henry Otway *ὡς ἴδεν, ὡς ἐμίσην, ὡς ἰς καθὺν ἄλλει' ἔρωτα*. The character of our hero's pedagogic efforts is thus sketched.

" Oft at his words their youthful eyes would glow,  
 And down their cheeks *spontaneous currents* flow,  
 As he the mines of classic lore revealed,  
 Or some pure fountain of the mind unsealed.  
 Each day his school some new instruction found,  
*And his ideas spread improvement round."* p. 76.

This gentleman Mary Eaton became attached to;

" With an affection, delicate and true,  
 She loved young Otway, *and cared not who knew!* "

The natural consequence of which was, that one moonlight evening they plighted troth to each other, on the banks of the said Merrimack, the scene of her "artless pranks," and Miss Mary Eaton soon after became Mrs. Henry Otway.

The "Miscellaneous Poems" are marked by equal beauties of thought and execution. We have "Songs," "Lines," "Keep Its," "Storms at Nahant," "Sonnets," "Sentimental Sketches," "Monodies," "Threnodies," *et id genus omne*. Among the monodies is a striking one on "the death of Mr. Joseph Blaney, who went out in a boat from Swampscot, July 12, 1830, and was destroyed by a shark." We have no objection to this piece, except the want of poetical justice in omitting to mention the fact that Mr. Blaney, junior, caught a shark the next day, whom he immediately knew by

his guilty looks to be the identical cannibal that eat up Mr. Blaney, senior. He was exhibited in Boston by way of *post obit* retribution, at the reasonable sum of ninepence a piece, if we remember rightly, for grown-up persons, — *children half price*.

It is always to be regretted when a sensible and sober man becomes subject to poetical hallucinations, without one ray of poetical genius. Such is the case with Mr. Lewis. Instead of spending his leisure time in studies belonging to his profession, which would have increased his usefulness in a highly respectable calling, he has devoted to the monstrous task of elaborating a volume of worthless rhymes, many precious but irrevocable hours.

There are a few good single lines, but their mates are mercilessly dragged in, and forced, reluctantly enough, to submit to the metrical yoke. Numberless weak, inept, and absurd epithets, bungling inversions, false metaphors, and strained but inexpressive combinations, are scattered over the book. An appearance of labor without doing any thing, strong efforts with no success, like the struggling of a man oppressed with the night-mare, meet the painstaking reader at every step of his toilsome progress. It is worse than dragging a sled *up hill* to slide *down*; it is all *up* and no *down*.

We take leave of these poems by advising Mr. Lewis to desert the Muses for ever, — those graceless huzzies, who have played him a most unhandsome turn, — and to confine himself to the projection of maps and the gentle craft of school-keeping.

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ART. IX. — *The Life and Death of Lord Edward Fitzgerald*. By THOMAS MOORE. 2 vols. 12mo. New York. J. & J. Harper. 1831.

LORD EDWARD FITZGERALD, one of a long line of noblemen who bore a conspicuous part in the political history of Ireland, was born on the 15th October, 1763. He was educated for the military profession, and its tactics and plans of fortification, upon a pigmy scale, formed a portion of his youthful amusements. He early became a proficient in the science of war, and glowed with military ardor and a desire of active service. In June, 1781, he arrived with his regiment at Charleston, South Carolina, and distinguished himself by his



promptness, courage, and personal success. After the close of the war of the American Revolution, his scene of military duty was in the West Indies. But here he became very impatient for a change. In the summer of 1783, having returned to Ireland about the time of the dissolution of parliament, he became a member of that body for the borough of Athby. But he seems to have had little relish for political or for "home life," and grew weary of the vapid pleasures of fashionable circles and entertainments. In the summer of 1788, he was stationed in his military capacity in the province of New Brunswick. During his residence there, he imbibed romantic notions of liberty, and of the happiness of savage life, which gave a coloring to his political principles and bearings at an after period. Having remained at this station about eighteen months, and explored the British and Spanish possessions in North America, tired of the sameness of his duties at his military post, and satisfied with his travels, he returned to London early in the year 1790, about the time of the contemplated expedition against Cadiz. The command was offered him; but being again returned a member for the Irish Parliament, and not liking to make the expected sacrifices of his political principles, he declined the offer to take the command of this expedition, became embroiled in the turbulent politics engendered by the revolution in France, afterwards became an adopted citizen of that country, and the husband of the daughter of Madame de Genlis. In the beginning of the year 1793, he arrived in London from France with his young bride. After a few years of domestic quiet and happiness, during which he did not grow indifferent to his high republican principles, but still was not very prominently engaged in disseminating them, he entered heartily into the cause of Irish emancipation, and early in 1796 joined the Society of United Irishmen. In May of the same year he set out on his perilous embassy to France, to make a treaty with the Directory, in furtherance of the revolutionary movements of his country. Mr. O'Connor was associated with him in this mission; and certain objections being made on the part of the French government to the reception of Fitzgerald, the management of the treaty was left with O'Connor. After Fitzgerald returned, and the plans of French coöperation proved to be tardy and uncertain, he declined being a candidate for reelection to parlia-

ment. He was made the head of the military committee, the object of which was to prepare a plan of insurrection or coöperation with France. The movements were busily urged on, till Reynolds, to whom in an unguarded hour Fitzgerald had disclosed the insurrectionary schemes, gave information of the plot, which had been so long in progress, and had evaded the scrutiny of government. Warrants were issued, by which some of the supposed leaders were secured, while Fitzgerald made his escape, and was for some time concealed. He soon, however, so far emerged from concealment as to see his dearest friends, and to take counsel with the leaders of the insurrection. The government obtaining further knowledge of the conspiracy, a reward of £1000 was offered for the apprehension of Fitzgerald. This was on the 11th of May, 1798; and about a week later he was discovered, and after a violent struggle, in which there were mutual severe wounds, he was taken by a sargeant-major and a magistrate and a third person, aided by a small body of soldiers. This disheartening event happened a few days only before the time announced for the general rising, which was to take place on the 23d of the month last mentioned. Lord Fitzgerald died in prison on the 3d of June following his arrest, before trial; and in July succeeding a bill was passed by parliament for his attainder, which received the royal sanction in October.

Such is a very general outline of Moore's *Life and Death of Lord Edward Fitzgerald*. The author has furnished many interesting details of the public transactions in which Fitzgerald was concerned, as well as the more personal and private history of his life and fortunes, of his family and friends; and a copious Appendix is added, relating to the bill of attainder. Not the least engaging parts of the biography are the numerous letters of the subject of it, written to his mother at mature age, with all the frankness and simplicity of childhood; qualities which are so apt to vanish in the grown man. The biographer describes the eloquence of Lord Fitzgerald, so far as he feels authorized to describe it from his youthful impressions, to have been of an elevated character, and, what is now rare in Irish oratory, of the purest kind. So that it may well be lamented that one possessed of "gifts, that would have made him an ornament and support of a well regulated community, was driven to live the life of a conspirator, and die the death of a traitor."

ART. X. — *The American Library of Useful Knowledge.*

Published by authority of the Boston Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge. Vols. I., II., and III. 12mo. Boston. 1831.

MANY persons, now in the midst of the active duties of life, are not aware what a multitude of things which enter largely into the comfort, convenience, and pleasure of human existence, besides those which are not only useful, but apparently indispensable, were, a half a century ago, matters of vague hope and general prediction. "Let us," says Condorcet in his life of Turgot, "be cautious not to despair of the human race. Let us count on the power of indefinite improvement, with which nature has endowed us; on the strength of human genius, from which long experience gives us a right to expect prodigies; and let us console ourselves for not being the living witnesses of that happy period by the pleasure of predicting and anticipating it." Dr. Price, a wide philanthropist, as well as a learned man, with particular reference to the United States of America, says, "It is impossible properly to represent the importance of education. So much is left by the Author of nature to depend on the turn given to the mind in early life, that I have often thought there may be a *secret* remaining to be discovered in education, which will cause future generations to grow up virtuous and happy, and accelerate human improvement to a greater degree than can at present be imagined. The end of education is to direct the powers of the mind in unfolding themselves; and to assist them in gaining their just bent and force. And, in order to this, its business should be to teach *how* to think, rather than *what* to think." If we do not mistake, there has been much gained in this respect. Independence in thinking, aided by the nature of our civil institutions, has greatly advanced in these United States; and, in general, the claims for inventions, discoveries, and various improvements, are fairly weighed and decided with reasonable promptness. Truth makes its way more quickly than it did in former times. We cannot believe that any great discovery in art or science could now be long neglected here, or in our mother-land; so as to afford any parallel to the triumph of the romantic philosophy of Des Cartes over the discov-

eries of Newton. No university here or in any European country would now condemn, as a dangerous novelty, such an improvement and reform in metaphysical science, as that made by Locke in his "Essay on the Human Understanding" in regard to preceding systems. If some universities are still too much wedded to former systems, and too slow to deviate from the old paths in any department, yet this kind of bigotry has diminished, and is constantly diminishing, notwithstanding "the hopelessness of academical reform," so strongly expressed by the celebrated Stewart. We have no doubt that this has been the consequence partly of the creation of societies for mutual improvement; societies which are producing most beneficent effects. These effects, so far as they are practical, cannot be injurious. In the whole circle of literature and science, of the mechanical and of the polite arts, it is practice that gives to knowledge its true value and usefulness. Scholars are not therefore to be jealous of these advances in practical science; the main effect of these advances upon them should be to stimulate their activity, and to quicken them in the race, so that literature shall not be outrun. Sure we are, that it will not fail to be respected; nay more, that it will acquire a growing estimation, so long as it shall adorn the professional callings, and so far as it shall be found to minister an increasing amount to the refined, intellectual pleasures of life. But we have no room for the discussion of these subjects.

The first volume of the work before us, published by authority of the Boston Society for the Promotion of Useful Knowledge, contains, very suitably, several discourses pertaining to the objects which the Society have in view. The first of these is that which was delivered by Judge Story before the Boston Mechanics' Institution, in 1829. It is marked by his usual fertility and zeal, by intellectual vigor and moral dignity. The last of them is from "A Preliminary Discourse on the Study of Natural Philosophy," by John J. F. Herschel; in which he speaks of the nature of the physical sciences, and sets forth their advantages in a most persuasive manner, by the introduction of facts and explanations. No one can fail, after perusing this discourse, to respect physical science for its extensive and marvellous achievements, and to feel delighted with the author, who has mingled with his philosophy such expansive views concern-

ing the social and moral relations of man, and given such constant proofs in his own person, of "looking through nature up to nature's God." The remaining contents of the volume are Mr. Webster's Discourse before the Mechanics' Institution; — Mr. Everett's Essay, compiled from a discourse before the same Institution, from an Address before the Middlesex Lyceum, at Concord, Massachusetts, and from an Oration delivered before the Columbian Institute at Washington; — Mr. Everett's Lecture before the Charlestown Lyceum; — and Lord Chancellor Brougham's Dissertation on the Objects, Advantages, and Pleasures of Science, and the first part of his account of Lord Bacon's *Novum Organon*. These are stamped with the impress of the great talents of their several authors; and the volume thus filled richly deserves a place in the library of every friend of scientific improvement.

The second volume contains "A Treatise on Mechanics, by Captain Henry Kater, and the Rev. Dionysius Lardner, LL. D., &c.," from the London edition. The authors have been long known to the public as successful cultivators of physical science. To the former of them we are indebted for some of the most important and satisfactory discoveries connected with the measure of time; and the labors of the latter, as an accomplished lecturer and writer on numerous branches of natural philosophy, are extensively known and appreciated. Such is the character of the authors of the admirable little treatise of which we have just given the title. This work contains a simple, just, and popular view of the most important elements of mechanical philosophy. It is not, like many of our common elementary systems, a disproportioned compilation from the works, hastily read and imperfectly understood, of the great masters of science; but, so far as an elementary work can be, it is an original production, which, as we see and feel at every page, comes fresh from minds thoroughly imbued with the science which they teach. It is unnecessary to give a detailed account of a book of such a character; and we have thus merely noticed it with unqualified praise, for the purpose of recommending it to the attention of all who desire an acquaintance with the great science which it illustrates.

The third volume contains "An Universal History, translated from the German of John Von Müller, in four volumes. Vol. I." This, as we gather from the Preface, was translated

and first published in England, and is here reprinted from the English edition. We have not had opportunity to compare it with the original ; but it is done into good English phraseology, neat and concise, strongly representing the character of the original German, as we should judge from what is said of this by the translator, and by Madame de Staël. In the Oriental history the author's chronology of the primitive ages differs from that which is commonly received. He follows the Septuagint version of the Old Testament in the antediluvian period, and afterwards till near the time of Abraham, making from the creation to the beginning of the present century 7522 years. His geology is fanciful and not very distinct ; and in fixing on the place where the peopling of the world began, he is governed by a theory founded upon the indigenous production of bread-corn, rather than in speculations upon the obscure geographical remains in the Old Testament.

The plan and execution of the work, so far as we can judge from the volume before us, present rather lectures upon history, than history with its usual details. Thus, for example, in the great movements of war and progress of conquest, the author does not follow in the train of the various campaigns, and describe in succession fortifications and tactics and battles and sieges, but, in general, contents himself with the results and consequences. In the fashion of the Germans, he dwells much on the sources of history ; estimating carefully the value of historians, philosophers, orators, poets, and rhetoricians, and writers on the polite and useful arts, the arts of peace and war. He passes rapidly over the most ancient periods of history, and does not treat us much with fabulous traditions ; though he speaks gravely of some things, as if they were true, which, according to our previous notions or prejudices, are at least very questionable. For the most part, it is not only a very learned, but a very philosophical history, without pedantry or parade of wisdom. The reflections are prompted by a wide and thorough knowledge of the subject, but never seem studied or far-fetched. For example, in his account of Athens, having described the vigilance of rulers in preventing offences, he adds,

“ Although it is impossible wholly to prevent excesses, yet wise men have thought it proper to forbid them, because whatever must be done in secret will be more seldom perpetrated, and not by all.” p. 54.

Again,

"Though Pericles flattered the Athenians on the ground that each mechanic knew something of the affairs of the state, yet it is not to be forgotten that this half knowledge operated greatly to the ruin of the republic; each individual fancied that he understood every thing as well as the most distinguished statesman." p. 58.

And again, after allowing due value to the works of the Christian Fathers, as subsidiary to the labors of the historian, he subjoins the useful remark, that

"The bad style of most of them, their misconceptions, and the weakness of some, redound to the honor of Christianity. It is manifest that these persons did not invent so pure, so sublime a doctrine; it was not they who gained the victory over the religion of Greece and Rome." p. 134.

It is the just and pertinent reflections of this kind which every where abound in Müller's History, that give it a peculiar value; it is thus, that history, in the best hands, becomes what it should be, — philosophy teaching by example.

Somewhat allied to the characteristic excellence last mentioned, are the just and well-timed parallelisms briefly drawn in regard to different civil institutions, laws, and customs, distinguished persons, and national traits of character.

Three-fifths of the volume are filled with the Roman history. It carries us a good deal into the internal state of the government, though not always preserving a due proportion in the parts. In the description of political offices, the mode in which they are constituted, their tenure, and the extent of their authority, there is sometimes a want of completeness; while the account of military offices and regulations is more full. The author's delineations of *great men* are drawn with remarkable spirit and truth. But in the description of Cæsar, he attains an energy in his manner, corresponding to that of the great warrior and orator in action, and a rapidity in his course, answering to that of the wondrous exploits of his hero; — aptly throwing in the reflection, "So true it is, that time is not wanting to men, but the resolution to turn it to account." Cato's portrait, with the true discrimination of an artist, he draws with all the gravity and solemnity belonging to the archetype.

We are not sure whether there is any historian at once

more sententious, philosophical, and discriminating, than Müller, since Tacitus, whom he often follows; and in the section on ancient Germany, he has done little more than translate that beautiful tractate of Tacitus, *De moribus Germaniæ*. We will not undertake to judge whether this is the most pleasing history for the mass of readers, which could be selected; but we are persuaded from the portion already published, that it would not be easy to select or compile one which would convey more solid instruction.

ART. XI.—1. *The Political Class Book; intended to instruct the Higher Classes in Schools, in the Origin, Nature, and Use of Political Power.* By WILLIAM SULLIVAN, Counsellor at Law. *With an Appendix upon Studies for Practical Men; with Notices of Books suited to their Use,* by GEORGE B. EMERSON. New edition with Amendments and Additions. 12mo. Boston. Richardson, Lord, & Holbrook. 1831. pp. 195.

2. *The Moral Class Book, or the Law of Morals; derived from the created Universe, and from Revealed Religion. Intended for Schools.* By WILLIAM SULLIVAN, Counsellor at Law. 12mo. Boston. Richardson, Lord, & Holbrook. 1831. pp. 282.

THE first of these books has been long enough before the public to have passed to a second edition. The subjects discussed in it are undoubtedly important, especially among us. Our young men are called upon at so early a period to take upon themselves the responsible duties of life, that they often enter their career with little or no preparation, except such as is gleaned in casual conversation, or from a narrow sphere of experience. Hence it is plain that they must often find themselves at a loss, in cases requiring prompt decision and immediate action, for want of practical and efficient knowledge of their relations to each other, the institutions of the country, the modes and means of social intercourse, and the transaction of business. With Mr. Sullivan it seems to be a principle of action, whenever a fault or defect is discovered, *to attempt a remedy*; instead of wasting time in useless complaints. Reformers may, for convenience' sake, be divided into two classes,—those who, like the subjects of the



Salem witchcraft, are marvellously prompt "to cry out upon" existing defects or abuses, but cannot for their life lift a finger to remove them, — and, secondly, those who make no bluster, but set themselves vigorously to work, and let their works speak for them. To this latter class Mr. Sullivan's two books show that he belongs. "The Political Class Book" begins with a general examination of the condition of man, and the means by which social order is preserved. Then we have a lucid sketch of the state and town governments in Massachusetts, and the nature of the authorities by which laws are made, supported, and executed. This is followed by a similar sketch of the Constitution of the United States, the Departments of the General Government, and the powers belonging to each, with numerous particulars necessary to be familiarly known to one who wishes to have a clear conception of the nature and operations of American institutions. The "Laws of Nations" and the "Laws of War" occupy two chapters. The remainder of the book is taken up with a chapter on "Property," one on "Banking," &c., one on "Persons, their capacities and incapacities," one on "the Classification of Persons," an exceedingly important one on the "Choice of Employments," one on "Religion," and one on "Education," which takes the place of the chapter on the Constitutions of the Middle States, which was the concluding part of the first edition. The practical worth of the book is not a little enhanced by the addition of an Appendix, containing, besides many excellent remarks on the various pursuits in life, a list of books, judiciously selected, with brief, clear, and comprehensive criticisms interspersed.

In this new edition, a chapter on "Moral Philosophy" has been added to the Appendix. It will be sufficient to say, that this portion of the volume is from the pen of that accomplished instructor, Mr. George B. Emerson. The general merits of this volume consist in its practical adaptation to the wants of society, the judicious arrangement of its parts, the plain and correct simplicity of its style, and the absence of extraneous matter, particularly of what is called by courtesy "profound discussion," — the charms of which are generally so enticing to writers and incomprehensible to readers.

"The Moral Class Book" has a still higher aim. It is strictly what its title indicates, a book setting forth "the law of morals

derived from the created universe, and from revealed religion." The design of this volume, says Mr. Sullivan, at the close of Chapter I, "is to prove that there is a Supreme Being; that he is the creator and governor of the universe; that he created man as we see him to exist, in his earthly frame, in his intellectual powers, and with an immortal spirit; that there is placed within his reach the knowledge of the laws intended for his government here; and that life here is connected with an existence which is to be attained through the house appointed for all that have lived, that do live, and that are to live." The argument begins with the "Proofs of the existence of the Supreme Being," drawn from the external world, — from the firmament, the globe, the action of water; from geology, the vegetable kingdom, the animal kingdom; from human organization, and then proceeds to human intellect, &c. These topics are handled with singular clearness and simplicity, and, in our opinion, the argument is admirably suited to the tastes and capacities of young scholars. It has been the fashion of late to decry the force of such proofs, and to place greater reliance upon the profounder arguments drawn from the inner nature of the human soul. But it seems to us consonant to the soundest principles of philosophy, to begin the instruction of the intellect on these important points, by addressing it with the most obvious topics of argument, and through the most obvious avenues of knowledge, viz. the argument from external nature, subjected to the scrutiny of the bodily senses. When the mind has been sufficiently unfolded and strengthened, to turn its eye inward, and become both the observer and the observed; and when the eternal wants of the soul are felt and comprehended, external proofs may more safely be neglected, because then belief is absolutely necessary to the spiritual nature, which cannot exist in a state of development without it. A genuine unbeliever, in the maturity of his intellectual faculties, is a philosophical absurdity. The hypothesis of such a being involves an impossibility and contradiction. Skeptics there may be; ardent and disputatious inquirers there must be; stern combatants of received opinions there ought to be; but unbelievers there *cannot be*. Unbelief implies, not only the logical error *non causa pro causâ*, but the logical absurdity of an effect *without* a cause. This may be stated in words, but the mind cannot comprehend it. It is unintelligible and impossible.

The proposition that "there is an immortal spirit in man," is supported by a similar course of argument, and is highly satisfactory. Thus far the whole subject has been examined by the light of reason alone. We now come to "revealed religion" and its evidences. These topics are treated with an unpretending and earnest purpose of arriving at important truth. The discussions have no aim, but the instruction of the young. Some of the chapters on the general subject of moral duty, are admirable, particularly Chapters **xxi** and **xxiii**.

The following paragraph, on the "Purposes of Life," may serve as a specimen of the average style and manner of the work.

"We believe that human life rightly understood and rightly used is a beneficent gift; that it can be so understood and used. It is irreconcilable to reason that man was sent into this world only to suffer and to mourn; it is from his own ignorance, folly, or error, that he does so. He is capable of informing himself; the means of doing this are within his power. If he were truly informed, he would not have to weep over his follies and errors. It is not pretended that every one can escape at once from a benighted condition, and break into the region of reason and good sense. But it is most clear from what is well known to have happened in the world, that each generation may improve upon the preceding one; and that each individual, in every successive period of time, may better know the true path, from perceiving how others have gone before him. There can be no miracle in this. It will, at best, be a slow progress; and the wisdom arrived at in one age must command the respect of succeeding ones, and receive from them the melioration which they can contribute. We understand nothing of what is called the perfectibility of human nature; but we understand this, that if human nature can be made to know wherein its greatest good consists, it may be presumed that this good will be sought and obtained. Man was created on this principle, he acts on this principle, although he is seen so frequently to make the most deplorable and distressing mistakes. If it be not admitted that mankind will always strive to obtain whatsoever seems to them good, and strive to avoid whatever seems to them evil, their moral teaching is in vain. If this principle be admitted, the sole inquiry is, what is good and what is evil." pp. 113, 114.

These chapters are written in the manner of one who has

looked upon life with a keen and scrutinizing eye; to whom the smallest things offer matter for serious and valuable reflection; for whom the customs of society, even those apparently the most indifferent, are connected with high moral purposes, and are full of instruction. Let the young read them and ponder them and *practise* them. Especially let them read and ponder and practise the doctrines "on labor."

The great orator of Greece being thrice asked what was the most important requisite for success in a public speaker, thrice answered, "Action!" If the question should be asked, what is the most important requisite for happiness, for virtue, for usefulness, for distinction, the answer would be, though in a different sense, yet with greater truth, "Action! laborious, well-directed action!" If a man wishes to enjoy the greatest of heaven's blessings, a contented mind and a healthful body, *mens sana in corpore sano*, let him go to work. If he wishes to feel the worth of existence, the pride of successful exertion, the true spirit of intellectual life, let him go to work. If he wishes to know what is the real dignity of our nature, let him go to work.

The remaining chapters are written in the same common-sense and practical tone. We hope the book will be extensively adopted in schools and academies. It has been long needed, and the time of its publication, as well as the publication itself, mark the sagacious observing of a mind deeply interested in the cause of intellectual and moral improvement. The style is easy, correct, and pure, and sometimes reminds us of the transparent clearness of Paley. The discussions occasionally touch upon the borders of metaphysical abstruseness, but for the most part glide gracefully by. Allusions sometimes occur which need the explanation of an instructor; but these allusions are necessary as illustrations. The greater portion of the work is within the grasp of ordinary minds, and requires only close attention and a logical habit of thinking, which, if not possessed, ought to be acquired as soon as possible. The follies of society call forth remarks, in the course of the book, whose sharpness and severity some would perhaps think unmerited or misplaced; but, on the whole, we believe they will call attention to matters of importance too generally overlooked. At times a tone of melancholy mingles with valuable reflections, which must inspire a corresponding seriousness in the heart of the giddiest reader. One of the

best qualities of the book is its freedom from professional partialities. It is written in the candid and generous spirit of a lover of truth and of man. No cant, no incomprehensible dogmas, no vague declamation, no "prose run mad," is to be found in its pages; all is addressed to "the business and bosoms" of the young, and will find a response in the unperverted, and make one in the perverted heart. In a few instances, we find speculative conclusions, from which we should dissent; in no instance do we find practical precepts, or rules for the conduct of life, which are not drawn *from* the life, and therefore just.

It is a phenomenon for a man of Mr. Sullivan's habits and pursuits to devote his time and talents to the instruction of the young. But he has judged truly, both for himself and the public. A man who has seen life extensively and under peculiar advantages for drawing just conclusions, and extracting practical philosophy, can bestow no higher gift on the coming generation, than the wisdom of his counsels, and the warning of his experience. The author of these books will be rewarded for his labor by the consciousness of having done much good, and by the gratitude of those to whom much good is done.

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ART. XII. — *Directions for making Anatomical Preparations, formed on the basis of Pole, Marjolin, and Breschet, and including the New Method of Swan.* By USHER PARSONS, M. D., Professor of Anatomy and Surgery. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea. 1831.

THERE is no science so important in regard to man as that of anatomy; and yet there is none, in a general view, so much neglected. To most other sciences there are those who consecrate their labors and fortunes even as amateurs; while the wonderful machinery of the human frame, which displays such contrivance and design, such an adaptation of parts to each other in its exquisite organization, is strangely neglected by mankind. "*Relinquant seipos nec mirantur.*" This neglect arises partly from an instinctive horror of viewing the decomposing remains of humanity, and partly from the difficulties which are to be encountered, even after this horror is overcome. The latter of these causes seems in a fair way to

be removed in this quarter, by the fact, as it is stated by our author, "that Massachusetts has nobly raised her voice in favor of practical anatomy." And it is much to be desired that this "voice," which must be powerful, if its power is in the ratio of the number that uttered it, may effectually reach the ears of those who are to secure its salutary promises. Those, however, on whom the execution of this law devolves, have trammelled its operation by an unexpected interpretation of its intent, and have raised obstacles where none seemed fairly to exist; so that the legislative act is found inoperative, and its provisions are ineffectual.

The appearance of the work before us will be a new and very great means of overcoming the difficulties of practical anatomy, and of imparting desirable knowledge respecting the preservation as well of healthy specimens, as of those of morbid and comparative anatomy. For want of this information how many valuable preparations of diseased organs and of curious aberrations of structure have been lost in decomposition! With this new acquisition every practitioner may possess his anatomical cabinet; every scientific man, and every curious observer of nature, his storehouse of objects, which retain all that is desirable but the vitality itself. How much our knowledge of minute anatomy is indebted to this practical delicacy and ingenuity in preparing the various organs, is exemplified in the important discoveries of Ruysch, who by these means enriched this science in a most remarkable manner. His preparations are the admiration even of the present day. His labors, appealing to the eye, were too convincing in regard to the intimately connected structure of organs, to be resisted by all the counteracting eloquence of his contemporary, Boerhaave; and Haller has repeatedly yielded to those more tangible arguments which are the result of mechanical skill and dexterity.

We believe that the work of Dr. Parsons is the first of the kind ever published in this country, and all that we have hitherto possessed on the subject, were the few observations appended to some of the treatises on anatomy. But few copies of the work of Pole were to be found, and even this is greatly defective.

Dr. Parsons has collected the "improvements of Dumeril, Breschet, Hunter, Pole, Marjolin, Bell, Cloquet, Swan, and some others, besides several valuable treatises on the art of

injecting the lymphatics, and numerous facts and observations contained in periodical publications." To these are added many valuable remarks by the author, who is himself an ingenious anatomist, and well acquainted with the practical details which he has incorporated with his work. The method of Swan for making dried anatomical preparations is here given in full; and also the manner of preserving objects of comparative anatomy. There are plates which elucidate the forms and uses of the several instruments required in these delicate operations. It is, in fact, a work embracing all that is necessary on this subject; and its value can be duly estimated by those only, who, for the want of such a guide, have often lost their time, their patience, and their preparations.

Our anatomical cabinets, in this section of the country at least, bear witness how much either the skill or the facilities in preparing subjects of delicate organization are needed. We believe, for instance, that there are but few corroded preparations, and still fewer of the lymphatics, in most of the collections in New England. It is for the same cause, in some measure, that we have no museum of comparative anatomy; a branch of science which has illustrated the human fabric, even more than human dissections, according to Haller. But on this last subject we hope to be much aided by the recently formed Boston Society of Natural History, which has already become possessed of some fine specimens of the osseous system of rare animals. We repeat, that the work in question is one of great utility, and that the scientific public are under obligations to the author for his services, in thus embodying all that is required on the art of making anatomical preparations.

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- ART. XIII. — 1. *New Conversations on Chemistry, &c. &c., on the Foundation of Mrs. Marcet's Conversations.* By THOMAS P. JONES, M. D. &c. Philadelphia. 1831. 12mo. pp. 332.
2. *A Manual of Chemistry,* by LEWIS C. BECK, M. D. &c. Albany. 1831. 12mo. pp. 458.
3. *Lectures on Chemistry,* by W. G. HANAFORD, M. D. Boston. 1831. 12mo. pp. 140.

THE small volume placed at the head of this list, is an acceptable present to chemical students. The original work

of Mrs. Marcet has been long well known and deservedly popular. Dr. Jones has compressed the whole into one volume, adapted it to the present state of the science, and made valuable additions and alterations. The present edition is much more fully illustrated by wood cuts and experiments than any former one, but is printed in a type far too small for the eyes of either pupil or instructor.

We trust that the associations of teachers will take into consideration the evil of which we have spoken, and effect the exclusion from schools of all books that are not printed in a type that can be read without pain.

The second work on our list is chiefly an abridgment of the Manuals of Professor Brande and Dr. Turner; it is not of so familiar and elementary a character as the "Conversations." The typography is somewhat better than that of the former work, but still the page is too crowded and the type too small. The references to more extended treatises on the different subjects, which are given at the end of the sections, will be found useful and convenient.

The volume of Dr. Hanaford is truly a *small* work. From the title-page we learn that it is "intended for lyceums, academies, and private students," but it is sadly deficient upon many of the most important subjects of chemistry. It contains a few of the most common and familiar facts, but they are given in language that is often unintelligible; and the attempts at definitions are awkward and imperfect. The author, however, very candidly tells us, that "little regard has been paid to scientific or literary nicety."

The illustrations are not always very well adapted to the lyceum or school-room, as happens with "the paradoxical experiment of freezing persons by turning boiling hot ether upon them."

Dr. Hanaford has been peculiarly fortunate if he has obtained fluorine, which he tells us, at page 54, "is obtained pure," but with "great difficulty," — a difficulty which the genius of Davy or the skill of Berzelius never could surmount. We beg him to reveal his process.

As the maker of this book informs us in his Preface that he "may possibly, hereafter, offer something upon other sciences in a somewhat similar manner," we would presume so far as to suggest to him that a tolerable knowledge of the subject is often of use in this branch of manufacture.



- ART. XIV. — 1. *Speeches and Forensic Arguments.* By DANIEL WEBSTER. Boston. Perkins & Marvin. 1830. 8vo. pp. 520.
2. *Remarks on the Life and Writings of Daniel Webster of Massachusetts.* Philadelphia. Carey & Lea. 1831. pp. 48.

OF all the statesmen whose influence is felt upon the character of the present age of Americans, Daniel Webster stands foremost. This is the consequence, not only of his commanding and energetic genius, but of the broad and generous and all-embracing patriotism, which has animated his distinguished career. Throughout a territory, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and ranging through a whole zone, the name and the fame of Webster are as familiar and as cherished as "household words," and the endearing associations of home. The glorious genius which God breathed into him, humble as were the fortunes of his early youth, devoting itself to his country's good; unrivalled eloquence, sustaining the cause of human happiness in the principles of constitutional freedom, have made him New England's boast, the country's honor, the world's benefactor. The simplicity and clearness of his mind, joined to his unswerving love of truth, "urging him onward, right onward" to its attainment, has enabled him to place the great principles on which our institutions are built, within the comprehension of every man in the country. In the acquisition of knowledge, his intellectual grasp seems to take in the whole extent of the mightiest subject, while the sharpness of his intellectual vision enables him to select at once the essential principles, and fix them for ever. Hence in the management of any subject, no matter how complicated in its details, how overloaded with abstruse and technical learning, how far removed from the ordinary range of thought among unprofessional men, his mind moves with an ease and a mastery truly admirable, and throws out light over the topics of his argument, making the whole as clear as the noonday.

But it is superfluous to enlarge on these characteristics of Mr. Webster's mind, and we abstain from further remark, though the temptation is almost irresistible. The volume of his "*Speeches and Forensic Arguments*" has been some time

before the public, and a great portion of them had been universally read, previously to their publication collectively. Every page beams with the light of genius and patriotism. In a merely literary point of view, the volume is an invaluable addition to our intellectual stores. Mr. Webster's language is the true expression of his mind. "His very statement is argument; his inference seems demonstration." His words are simple, and speak to the mind and heart, with the true old Saxon expressiveness. His style rises to and overtops the sublimest theme. It is full of the inspiration of poetry, and the fire of the noblest eloquence. The giant strides of his mind, as we watch them in the course of his argument, awe and delight us. His command of language and imagery clothes his conceptions in forms of surpassing grandeur. In him the union of clear and rapid argument, the soundest logic, the most overwhelming power, the most varied imagination, now playing around his subject like a sunbeam, and now investing it with the terrors of Heaven's lightning, reminds us of the ancient Greek, when "lit up with all its ardors, even under the Promethean touch of Demosthenes." We make no quotations, but bid the reader to repeat from his memory the sublime conclusion of the Plymouth Discourse, or the sublimer conclusion of the second reply to Mr. Senator Hayne.

The "Remarks" are taken mainly from the *American Quarterly Review*. They are written in a polished and eloquent style, and show a just and profound appreciation of the character they portray. The tone of feeling which pervades them is lofty and patriotic. On every page a spirit breaks out, which harmonizes well with the inspiring theme, and proves the author to have been filled with "the selectest influence" of American institutions. The views of Mr. Webster's character, and of his relations to the country which has nurtured and sustained him, possess no ordinary value on account of the acute and philosophical style of thinking in which they are conceived. As we read them "we feel as if the sources of his strength and the mystery by which it controls us, were, in a considerable degree, interpreted." The attention of the public has lately been called to this pamphlet, by an insane attack upon its author, from the pen of Mr. S. L. Knapp, the writer of a life of Mr. Webster; from which the assailant came off with little success and

less honor. The result has left him the satisfactory reflection, that he has, without the slightest provocation, offered a base and unmanly insult to an accomplished gentleman and scholar; and this reflection must be rendered the more consolatory by the calm and dignified manner with which the assault has been repelled.

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ART. XV. — *A Discourse on the Philosophy of Analogy, delivered before the Phi Beta Kappa Society of Rhode Island, September 7, 1831.* By FRANCIS WAYLAND, D. D., President of Brown University. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1831. 8vo. pp. 32.

THIS is a good production, not for its fit words in fit places, but for its rich thought on an important subject.

Analogy ought to be better understood. It is a strong and active principle in our nature, and its power is over mind. It governs our every-day actions, marks a genius for invention and the fine arts, and gives soul to the creations of imagination.

President Wayland takes the following positions. 1. Man is constituted for knowledge; 2. He knows by sensation that things exist, and that changes take place in them according to a certain *order*; 3. Nature must declare her own *laws*, by answering *yes* or *no* to our questions; 4. Reason, by induction and demonstration, is to decide whether the answer given belong to the question put; 5. A science is needed to give us skill in asking nature questions *to the point*; 6. This will be the science of analogy, resting on the following axioms: 1. A system of an intelligent *agent* involves no contradictory principles; 2. The works and the character of an intelligent, moral agent, are correlative things, so that a knowledge of one may lead us to a knowledge of the other.

The manner of illustrating these positions is beautiful, and indicates a deep feeling of their importance.

"You observe that I speak of the science of analogy, as something which is yet to be. It does not now exist, but it must exist soon." p. 14.

"It will improve with the increasing accuracy and extent of all knowledge, especially the knowledge of the character of God; and in proportion as it is perfected, discovery, ceasing to

be the creature of accident, will become a science, founded on a knowledge of those laws which govern the process of original investigation." *Passim*.

We do hope that the time is not far off when some giant hand shall unroll the chart of human intellect, and from "Eden" trace, in burning lines, its exiled course through superstitions, religions, laws, science, literature, public opinion, and national actions. Then might analogy, with its living principles embodied, rank first among the sciences, and become a mental sun, rolling its broad light far over the regions of undiscovered truth. Then would those great *facts* revealed in the works and word of God, be to the philosopher, what sketches, fragments of statues, and broken columns are to artists. Analogy by its wide sweep would connect them as suns scattered in space together, fill up the outline, and body forth in the light of mind one harmonious *whole*, disrobed of that mystery which the darkness of the future and twilight of the past now thrown around it; and we should be made happy by seeing God in all his works, and all his works in Him.

We recommend this Discourse to every lover of sound philosophy.

ART. XVI. — *A New Abridgment of Ainsworth's Dictionary.* By J. DYMCK, LL. D. First American edition; with Corrections and Improvements, by CHARLES ANTHON, Jay Professor of Languages in Columbia College, New York, and Rector of the Grammar School. New York. Henry G. Sleight. 1831.

IN this edition, Dr. Dymock has reduced Morell's Abridgment of Ainsworth from an octavo to an 18mo. The reduction is effected by the omission, in the Second Part, of the examples from Latin classical authors, and in the First Part, of every thing not absolutely essential. It is convenient to have a dictionary of any language in a portable form; and this edition will be useful to those who have occasion for a mere vocabulary of the Latin language. But to those for whom it is particularly intended, to lads at school employed in learning Latin critically and exactly, this abridgment cannot be recommended. One great merit of Ainsworth consists in the citations from ancient authors, which are placed under

each word, to illustrate and confirm the meaning given. The learner meets with a word which is new to him, and finds that it has a great variety of meanings. What can assist him more in deciding which of these he should adopt, than a series of examples of the use of the word in its various senses? The boy who studies faithfully will seldom leave an example unread, till he has satisfied himself as to the meaning of the word; and the farther he advances, the less willing will he be to receive any definitions, except upon the authority of a classical author. So useful is this habit of relying only upon the classics themselves, as fixing the signification of words, that the reduction, in size and price, of Dr. Dymock's Abridgment, seems by no means to counterbalance the disadvantages resulting from the omission of so important a part of the original work.

Mr. Anthon has improved the book by adding a dictionary of proper names, and some valuable tables, and by occasional remarks on words. It would be still more improved, if the inconvenient custom of regarding *i* and *j*, *u* and *v*, as the same letters, in the alphabetical arrangement of words, had been dropped. In following literally the Glasgow edition, care has not, in every instance, been taken to avoid copying typographical errors.

It is to be regretted that we have not a better school dictionary than Ainsworth's. It has merits, but it is imperfect. With all deference to the judgment passed upon it, by its universal use for many years, we think that it has been thus used, not because a better dictionary has not been needed, but because a better could not be procured. No one can have attempted to read, much more no one can have taught Latin, without being convinced that this dictionary is a very insufficient guide to the meaning of a Latin author. While various Greek lexicons have appeared within a few years, expressly designed for schools, nothing has been done with regard to Latin dictionaries. Bailey, indeed, has given us the invaluable lexicon of Forcellinus, in a form that may be esteemed perfect; but this work is too large and costly for general use. We think, however, that a judicious abridgment of it might supply the deficiency of which we have complained, and that the work would be a rich present to the lovers of Latin literature.

ART. XVII. — *History of Scituate, Massachusetts, from its First Settlement to 1831.* By SAMUEL DEANE. Boston. James Loring. 1831. 8vo. pp. 408.

THIS is the history of one of our oldest towns. The author, the Rev. Mr. Deane of Scituate, a respectable scholar, and a very diligent antiquary, has collected with great care and labor abundant materials, many of which will prove interesting to the general reader. The town of Scituate derives its name from the Indian word *satuit*, which means *cold brook*. The first settlers in 1628 were chiefly from Kent, in England. They were an intelligent, enterprising race, and are well entitled to the chivalrous appellation of *the men of Kent*.

The town was incorporated in 1636. It was within the limits of Plymouth Colony, and bordered upon the Colony of Massachusetts, which was a distinct government from that of Plymouth, till 1692. From the situation of the town upon the borders of the sea its agriculture has been deemed secondary to its other interests. It extends eight miles along the shore and possesses a good harbour. The attention of the inhabitants was therefore early led to ship-building, for which the place has always been distinguished. The ship *Columbia*, the first vessel from this country that visited the Northwest Coast, was built in Scituate in 1773; and there also have been built many of the large whale ships, owned in New Bedford and Nantucket.

Mr. Deane mistakes in giving Plymouth Colony the honor of first establishing *free schools*. He remarks, that a law was passed in that colony in 1677, "which he believes may be fairly considered as the foundation of the present beautiful system of free schools in this country." Thirty years before, viz. in 1647, the Massachusetts Colony led the way in that glorious system, *to the end*, as is beautifully expressed in the preamble of the law, *that learning may not be buried in the graves of our forefathers, in church and commonwealth, the Lord assisting our endeavours*.

The ecclesiastical history of Scituate is a valuable portion of the work, and not more minute than its importance requires. A controversy early occurred in the First Congregational Society, because the minister, Mr. Chauncy, would baptize only by immersion. Those who opposed Mr. Chaun-

cy's practice withdrew, and after several years, and encountering many difficulties, succeeded in forming a second society, and settling Mr. Witherell, who adhered to the former mode of baptism by sprinkling.

Scituate, like all our other towns, was fairly purchased of the Indians, for what to them was a satisfactory and ample consideration. This was an act of justice, not of necessity, on the part of the inhabitants of the town; for at the time of its first settlement there were but few of the natives upon that territory; a sad remnant that had escaped the ravages of the small-pox, which had desolated the country a few years before. This remnant was under the dominion of Chicatabut, chief of the Massachusetts tribe, who then resided at Neponset river near *Squantum*.

Mr. Deane's "Family Sketches" occupy one half of the book, and many may think the space too large; but they must take the author's defence, in which he says, that "this is all the nobility we have, and it is nobility enough, when we can trace our descent from the fathers of New England." And again; "We owe less, if possible, to the patriots of 1776, than to those of 1676. The one was a contest for liberty; the other a struggle for existence."

This is certainly one of the best of our town histories. It discovers unwearied industry in obtaining materials, and great fidelity in their use. The first half of the work will be acceptable to the general reader, especially if he is imbued with any of the spirit of an antiquary; while the other half, composed of family sketches, will be diligently sought out by those engaged in the less attractive pursuits of genealogical inquiry.

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ART. XVIII. — *An Address delivered on the Dedication of the Cemetery at Mount Auburn, September 24, 1831.*  
By JOSEPH STORY. *To which is added an Appendix, containing a Historical Notice and Description of the Place, with a List of the present Subscribers.* Boston.  
Joseph T. & Edwin Buckingham. 1831. 8vo. pp. 32.

THIS Address is wholly devoid of elaborate effort. It exhibits the spontaneous, unaffected, and, as it were, instinctive expression of the author's feelings on the subject of the

solicitude, almost universal among mankind, concerning the circumstances of their death, and the disposal of their material remains; and thus he arrives in the most natural manner at what was peculiar to the occasion, and at the affecting scene which there were so many present to witness. These circumstances combined, sufficiently account for the mutual sympathy between the speaker and his audience; and thus the true and legitimate end of eloquence was reached.

The following extracts, for which only we have room, give a sketch as clear and just as it is brief and rapid, of the regard paid to the selection of places for the burial of the dead in different countries, and at various periods of the world; concluding with a very natural appeal to Christians, who are looking forward to a fairer land:

“The aboriginal Germans buried their dead in groves consecrated by their priests. The Egyptians gratified their pride and soothed their grief, by interring them in their Elysian fields, or embalming them in their vast catacombs, or enclosing them in the stupendous pyramids, the wonder of all succeeding ages. The Hebrews watched with religious care over their places of burial. They selected, for this purpose, ornamented gardens, and deep forests, and fertile valleys, and lofty mountains; and they still designate them with a sad emphasis, as the “House of the Living.” The ancient Asiatics lined the approaches to their cities with sculptured sarcophagi, and mausoleums, and other ornaments, embowered in shrubbery, traces of which may be seen among their magnificent ruins. The Greeks exhausted the resources of their exquisite art in adorning the habitations of the dead. They discouraged interments within the limits of their cities; and consigned their relics to shady groves, in the neighbourhood of murmuring streams and mossy fountains, close by the favorite resorts of those, who were engaged in the study of philosophy and nature, and called them, with the elegant expressiveness of their own beautiful language, *CEMETERIES*, or “Places of Repose.” The Romans, faithful to the example of Greece, erected the monuments to the dead in the suburbs of the eternal city, (as they proudly denominated it,) on the sides of their spacious roads, in the midst of trees and ornamental walks, and ever-varying flowers. . . . . And the Moslem Successors of the emperors, indifferent as they may be to the ordinary exhibitions of the fine arts, place their burying-grounds in rural retreats, and embellish them with studious taste as a religious duty. The cypress is planted at the head and foot of every



grave, and waves with a mournful solemnity over it. These devoted grounds possess an inviolable sanctity. The ravages of war never reach them; and victory and defeat equally respect the limits of their domain. So that it has been remarked with equal truth and beauty, that while the cities of the living are subject to all the desolations and vicissitudes incident to human affairs, the cities of the dead enjoy an undisturbed repose, without even the shadow of change. . . . .

"Why should not Christians imitate such examples? They have far nobler motives to cultivate moral sentiments and sensibilities; to make cheerful the pathways to the grave; to combine with deep meditations on human mortality the sublime consolations of religion." pp. 8-11.

The Appendix contains a history of the origin, progress, and completion of the plan of the Rural Cemetery; a description of "Mount Auburn," the place fixed upon, — being about four miles west from Boston, and lying partly in Cambridge and partly in Watertown; and an account of the ceremonies of its dedication to the solemn purpose for which it has been set apart.

There were not a few good and intelligent persons who at first looked upon this project of a secluded place of sepulture, adorned by Him who fashioned all things with native beauty, and to be further adorned by the hand of art, fashioned by the same invisible power, and destined, though not to create, yet humbly to operate upon materials richly furnished, — with indifference, if not with dislike. But we believe that there have been many converts; and that none who have seen what has been done, and read and heard what has been publicly written and spoken upon it, can fail to view the work accomplished with tenderness and complacency, if not with lively interest.

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ART. XIX. — *The Mother's Book.* By MRS. CHILD, Author of "The Frugal Housewife," &c. Boston. Carter, Hendee, & Babcock. 1831. 12mo. pp. 168.

MRS. CHILD tells us that she has written this book because she knows of no one having a similar object, "adapted to popular use in this country." She has desired to supply what seemed to her a want in this particular; and, without

making "pretensions to great originality," has endeavoured to lay down those principles and maxims which are of chief importance in early education. She begins with the treatment of the bodily senses, and thence passes to the development of the affections and the intellect, and to general rules respecting "management in childhood." Then comes a chapter on amusements and employments, another on religion and superstitions, and another on books. The remainder of the volume treats of politeness, dress, and other connected topics, and it closes like a novel with matrimony. These several topics are for the most part treated judiciously, in a style of great point and vivacity, and with pertinent and entertaining illustrations. We might have occasion to differ from the author in regard to some of her views, if we were entering into a discussion of the subject, and to act the critic perhaps in respect to some minor points of literary execution. But we regard her as having on the whole perfectly succeeded in her commendable design. She has made a sensible and useful book, which deserves high praise, and ought to be widely circulated.

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ART. XX. — *Lectures and Sermons*, by HENRY C. KNIGHT, A. M., a Priest in the Protestant Episcopal Church. Boston. Lilly & Wait. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 278, 267.

THE Lectures are on the history of the Bible, the proofs of Christianity, ecclesiastical history, and other subjects pertaining to theology; and though not very full, nor of a very popular cast, they contain useful information for those who have not attended to the matters embraced in them.

The Sermons are various in their kinds, doctrinal, explanatory, biographical, and poetical. They are written under the influence of a good Christian spirit; and as there are diversities of gifts, so there are diversities of taste, which will secure for Mr. Knight due estimation with a portion of readers.

We cannot help thinking that there are more sermons, as well as other books published, than the wants of our community demand. Multitudes of sterling sermons in the English language can be procured at a moderate price, as new to most readers, as those fresh from the press.

ART. XXI. — *Address at the Celebration of the Sunday School Jubilee, on the Fiftieth Year from the Institution of Sunday Schools, by Robert Raikes.* Delivered at Charleston, S. C., September 14th, 1831 ; by THOMAS SMITH GRIMKÉ. Charleston. 1831. pp. 20.

TOGETHER with the laudable zeal displayed in this Address, in behalf of Sunday Schools, it contains a well deserved commemoration of Robert Raikes, their founder, a native of Britain, an *humble man*, but a *noble benefactor of mankind*. His example affords a text for Mr. Grimké to illustrate the importance of individual effort, as the basis of combined exertion.

It is now ascertained that the first school of this kind, which was established in Gloucester, 1780, originated with the Rev. Thomas Stock, head-master of the cathedral school in that city. Mr. Stock imparted the details of his plan to Mr. Raikes, who, by means of his property and zeal, having promoted the wide extension of Sunday Schools, obtained the credit of being their founder. But Mr. Grimké may find a salvo in a remark of his own, alluding to an alleged origin of the plan of these schools much more remote. "The merit of invention or discovery lies, not in the mere fact, but in the application of it extensively and permanently to promote the welfare of mankind ;" — a sentence, by the way, which is not very logically expressed. The merit of invention does undoubtedly lie in the mere fact ; but its application, &c. may be more meritorious.

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ART. XXII. — *An Address delivered at Nashville, Tennessee, April 6th, 1831, at the Request of the Literary Societies of the University of Nashville.* By WILLIAM GIBBS HUNT. Nashville. Hunt, Tardiff, & Co. 1831. pp. 20.

It is pleasing to find a gentleman of Mr. Hunt's literary qualifications, a native of Boston, educated in its Latin School, and in the University at Cambridge, and distinguished in both, pleading earnestly the cause of mental improvement, in a remote part of the Union, and presenting forcibly the

"peculiar and powerful motives to intellectual culture and literary improvement in the new states of the West."

We cannot forbear to commend the manly and generous ardor with which he assails the "extraordinary apathy, and still more extraordinary spirit of persecution towards the higher literary institutions of Tennessee on the part of her citizens."

"It is a great mistake," he says, "to suppose that a university in our state is calculated for the special benefit of the wealthier class of society. It is directly the reverse. The tendency is to bring within the reach of that largest portion of the community who possess only a moderate competence, those means and advantages which the rich can always enjoy by a resort to distant institutions. There are few persons in Tennessee so abjectly poor as to be unable to obtain a liberal education at a suitable seminary at home, or in the vicinity of home; whereas the great majority perhaps would find it inconvenient, if not impracticable, to sustain the burden of a long journey, and the accumulated expenses of a distant residence. The poor certainly are little indebted to those professed advocates of their interests, who would exclude them from all possible opportunity to partake of those privileges and benefits which the wealthy will always take care to secure for themselves." .... "With various fortunes, the University of Tennessee has languished and struggled, and occasionally flourished; and I am happy to say, it is now, both in regard to its condition and prospects, more successful and prosperous than at any preceding period." pp. 19, 20.

Mr. Hunt, in the course of his Address, presents a vivid picture of the Valley of the Mississippi, which the friends he has left on these shores, we are sure, would delight personally to gaze upon, and to enjoy for a season, under his hospitable guidance and direction.

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**ART. XXIII.** — *A Liturgy for the Use of the Church at King's Chapel in Boston; collected principally from the Book of Common Prayer. Fourth edition. With Family Prayers and Services, and a Collection of Hymns for Domestic and Private Use; by F. W. P. GREENWOOD.* Boston. Carter & Hendee. 1831. 12mo. pp. 381.

THERE is a small proportion of persons, probably, in the different denominations of Christians which compose a large ma-

majority of our churches, namely, Congregational, Presbyterian, Baptist, Methodist, &c., who have given their thoughts, in any great degree, to the advantages and disadvantages of liturgies, or written forms of prayer, compared with those of extemporary prayers. The great body of worshippers in those churches have been satisfied with the usage of their respective ministers and congregations. Some have acquiesced in the usage from expediency ; and some have felt an actual dislike for what seemed to them a too complex and ceremonial service, in our Episcopal churches. But it seems to be a very proper subject of consideration both for ministers and people. And we see no reason, why (as every bishop, in the earlier ages of the church, had authority to form a liturgy for his own diocese,) every minister, not under any restrictions from the constitution of his church, may not, with the consent of his congregation, form a liturgy for the conducting of public worship within the precincts of his official labors.

The liturgy of the *English Church*, to go back to no prior forms, was established nearly three centuries ago. It underwent several revisions and changes, till at length it received its present form in 1661, since which, all attempts that have been made to effect alterations have been unavailing.

The celebrated Dr. Samuel Clarke left in his own writing several alterations in the liturgy of the English Church, made not long before his death ; and fifteen years previously he had considered in the Third Part of his "Scripture Doctrine of the Trinity," the principal passages in the Liturgy relating to this doctrine. But no public use, we believe, was made of his proposed alterations in the liturgy, till nearly half a century after his decease. In 1774, was published in London "The Book of Common Prayer, reformed according to the plan of the late Dr. Samuel Clarke." It is almost superfluous to add, that this was wholly independent of any countenance from the church of England. It has gone through several editions, in the fourth of which the Apostle's Creed, the only creed which had been retained, was omitted.

The Protestant Episcopal Church in these United States, by a Convention of bishops, clergy, and laity, in 1789, declared without qualification its *ecclesiastical independence*. While the attention of this Convention was called to the necessary alterations in the prayers for civil rulers, "they

could not," to use the words of that body, "but with gratitude to God, embrace the happy occasion (uninfluenced and unrestrained by any worldly authority) to take a further review of the *public service*, and to establish such other alterations and amendments therein as might be deemed expedient."

The deliberations of the Convention, besides other particulars of less consequence, resulted in the expunging of the Athanasian creed, which the good Tillotson, with many others, wished his church was fairly "rid of"; and consequently, in giving up the binding authority of the *thirty-nine articles*, one of which enjoins that the three creeds are "thoroughly to be *received and believed*."

Before the establishment of the Book of Common Prayer to be used in the Episcopal Church of this country, one was prepared for King's Chapel, in Boston, and there adopted. But the alterations, omissions, and additions, not being authorized by the government of the Episcopal Church, the Chapel congregation and its minister could not be acknowledged as a part of that church; and consequently, they have ever since been an individual and singular example of a church, having to itself exclusively its own usages and forms of worship, and yet ready to extend its fellowship to others.

"The present edition of the Chapel Liturgy," says Mr. Greenwood, "is intended to supply a want which has been long felt and often expressed, for a book which should serve as a manual of both public and domestic worship. . . . It is in the latter portion, which is devoted chiefly to domestic worship, that the difference between this and the preceding edition is most perceptible. To say nothing of minor additions, four services for Morning and Evening Prayer have been prepared for this edition, together with a collection of nearly one hundred hymns for domestic and private use."

This latter portion constitutes a valuable addition to the works suited to family devotion. The hymns are various in their poetical character, among which persons of like piety but of different tastes will find it easy to select such as are adapted to their lawful preferences and their state of religious feeling.

To the Liturgy for the use of the *Evangelical Lutheran Churches*, first published by order of the Evangelical Lutheran Synod of New York, in 1817, are also added prayers

for the use of families and individuals, adapted to the various relations and circumstances of the human condition. This liturgy has not much in common with that of the Episcopal Church. It embraces, however, forms of prayer to be used in divine service generally, in the administration of the sacraments, and in the celebration of other solemn rites customary in the Lutheran Church.

The several liturgies which we have mentioned all contain excellent forms of prayers suited to public worship. These prayers, and the service generally, might without difficulty be modified, according to the religious principles, and religious prejudices, we would humbly add, of different churches, in which there is not an absolute dislike of written forms. At any rate, we can see no objection to the composition of a liturgy for any denomination of Christians, with the provision made relating to that of the Evangelical Lutheran Church; the use of the forms being left entirely to the discretion of congregations and ministers, and he who leads in the devotions of his brethren, being at perfect liberty to address the throne of grace in his own words. But the main thing is to guard ourselves against "losing the spirit and influence of religion, in disputing about its attire and ornaments," and to consider, after all, that "the best prayer-book is the heart of the Christian."

ART. XXIV. — *Aids to Devotion, in Three Parts; including Watts's "Guide to Prayer."* Boston. Lincoln & Edmands. 12mo. pp. 288.

THE work of Dr. Watts, which forms much the larger part of this volume, is so well known to those who have read as well as meditated on the subject of prayer, that it is unnecessary to speak of it in many words. It is a work in which the different topics of prayer, its true spirit, and every thing pertaining to the style and manner, or delivery, and the means of acquiring its spirit, are largely discussed, and concluded by "a persuasive to learn to pray."

A small portion of the volume consists of devotional exercises selected from passages of Scripture, as they are arranged in Henry's "Method of Prayer." The work of Henry from

which this part is taken, is also well known, and is exceedingly valuable.

The remainder of the volume is taken up with the writings of Bickersteth on the same subject. "A large portion of his excellent treatise on the nature, duty, and privilege of prayer, and an answer to objections made against its use," &c., constitute the introduction to the volume; and it closes with several forms of prayer by the same author.

We have read and re-read this portion with great delight. It is full of the signs of animated, heart-felt devotion; and there is nothing in the spirit, and very little in the letter with which any sincere Christian can fail to concur and to sympathize.

One of the author's propositions concerning the privilege of prayer appears to be stated too strongly, or at least is not sufficiently qualified and explained; namely, "Prayer is the *mean*\* which God has appointed to obtain every good, and to escape every evil. . . . There is no evil that you may now suffer, or that you may expect to suffer, which prayer is not the appointed mean to alleviate or avert." This is true in a certain sense. But we are not told that the alleviation consists in the submissive will, — the power of supporting the ills of life. How far prayer may be the means of averting evils, in the common acceptation of the word *evils*, we have no way to ascertain; and such a hope goes, as we believe, beyond the true interpretation of our Saviour's promises.

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\* We presume the editor of this work has substituted *mean* for *means*, denoting the instrument; for we find it in all parts of the book. Some of the old English writers used the singular in this sense; but it did not prevail. Lowth in his English Grammar gave some countenance to it; but still it did not prevail; and no good writer, says Campbell, will venture to use *mean* as denoting instrumentality. A few years ago, when we adverted to things of this kind, we regarded the use of *mean*, implying the instrument, as a mark of pedantry or affectation on the same level with *hissself* and *theirselves*, which were hazarded by a few writers, not a half a century ago. But we thought the time for these nice analogies to no purpose was fairly gone by.



## FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

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**ENCYCLOPÆDIA METROPOLITANA** (London). — The plan of this work is original, deviating in a great measure from the dictionary form heretofore adopted for Encyclopædias, but preserving enough of that form to make it a book of reference, and a work for occasional perusal or study. Its great divisions are, 1. Pure sciences, five volumes; 2. Mixed and applied sciences, about six volumes; 3. History and biography conjoined and chronological, about six volumes; 4. Miscellaneous and lexicographical, in ten volumes; these being alphabetical; including a Philosophical and Etymological Thesaurus of the English Language. Each word is traced to its source in other languages, and its various applications in our own are elucidated by citations from writers of all dates. This division also is to comprise a complete geographical dictionary. At first it was published quarterly in parts, more than three-fifths of the work being now completed in this form; afterwards in entire volumes, nine having been published. A republication is to take place in monthly numbers, beginning with May next. A long list of able writers are presented, who with scarcely an exception have contributed to the portion of the work already published. — *Advertisement appended to the Westminster Review.*

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**ECLECTIC REVIEW.** — This Review is probably less known in the United States than any British periodical journal of like value. The following abstract of its history is therefore given from an advertisement in the Westminster Review. The Eclectic Review commenced in the year 1805, with the specific design of "rousing the Christian public to a perception of the important influence which literature possesses in obstructing or accelerating the progress of religious truth." The title indicates the plan of selection on which the journal was founded. The Second Series began with the year 1814, and the third with that of 1829. It has been conducted on avowed *Evangelical principles*, and yet it has not only never been acknowledged by its conductors to be the organ of a party, but claims total independence of party influence, and a fearless spirit of criticism, even to the displeasure of those on whose support it might seem to have a right to calculate. It has had its full share of able contributors, — to mention no other but *Hall*, *Montgomery*, and *Foster*; and it has done much towards furnishing a good record of the productions and progress of literature for the last five and twenty years.

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**POLYGLOTT BIBLE.** — *Samuel Lee*, S. T. B., Royal Professor of Hebrew, &c. in the University of Cambridge, England, has recently published a work, entitled, "*Biblia Sacra Polyglotta textus archetypus*

versionesque præcipuas ab Ecclesiâ antiquitus receptas, necnon versiones recentiores Anglicanam, Germanicam, Italicam, Gallicam, et Hispanicam, complectentia. Accedunt Prolegomena in textuum archetyporum, versionumque antiquarum crisin literalem." London; in one splendid folio volume. Price 8l. 8s. — *Bent's Literary Advertiser*, London.

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**FACTS ON THE PUNISHMENT OF DEATH IN THE METROPOLIS** (London.) By EDWARD GIBBON WAKEFIELD. — This work is commended in the London Morning Chronicle (July 16) as characterized by an uncommon talent for observation and shrewdness of remark; and as being one of the most valuable accessions to criminal jurisprudence which has been made for many years. — *Ibid.*

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**WAVERLEY AUTOGRAPH MANUSCRIPTS.** — The sale of these manuscripts amounted to £317. That of *Rob Roy*, complete in three volumes, was sold to Mr. Wilkes, M. P., for £50, being the highest sum for any single work. *Ivanhoe* and the *Pirate*, both imperfect, sold for £12 each, being the lowest sum for any single work. — *Ibid.*

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**MODERN GREEK PROVERBS.** By ALEXANDER NEGRIS. Edinburgh. 1831. — This is a curious and interesting collection of the maxims current among the modern Greeks; and it shows the indestructibility of popular literature; for many of these apophthegms are taken from the ancient dramas, and preserved with scarcely the change of a word. The author has arranged them in alphabetical order, and has thus rendered the work less valuable. Had these maxims been classed according to the subjects, they would have assisted us considerably in forming an estimate of the national character of Mr. Negris's countrymen. — *Ibid.*

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**CEMETERIES.** — We have more than once called the attention of our readers to the proposed establishment of one or more public cemeteries somewhere in the outskirt of this overgrown city. The necessity for such places is becoming every day more urgent. It is well known, that in Italy where they commonly bury in the churches, many churches are obliged to be altogether closed during the summer months, in consequence of the putrid exhalations from the vaults beneath. Our churches and church-yards are only in degree less offensive and dangerous. It is, therefore, with great pleasure that we hear that the General Cemetery Company have purchased a large tract of ground, for the purpose of public burial, and are proceeding with spirit and every probability even of pecuniary success. — *Ibid.*

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**HISTORICAL AND ETHNOGRAPHICAL VIEW OF SCIENTIFIC CULTIVATION, INTELLECTUAL ACTIVITY, AND LITERATURE OF THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE,** BY FRANCIS SARTORI. Vol. I. Vienna. 1830. — This important work embraces in a manner so clear and exact the literature of the Austrian Empire in its various dialects, that the reader can judge, from a cursory view, of the riches of Austrian literature from the revival of letters to the present time.

This book points out all that has appeared worthy of remark in more than fourteen different dialects; and it is the author's aim, by his great researches, to resolve this question; Whether the Austrian monarchy, embracing thirty-two millions of inhabitants, has a peculiar literature? This literature comprises not only the works which have appeared in Austria Proper, containing six millions of Germans, but those also of the different nations depending on the empire, *Sclavonians, Ralians, Hungarians, Wallachians, Jews, Armenians, Greeks, Turks, &c.* As the literary productions of these different people are totally unknown to a stranger, equally so are those of each people to the others.

The author attempts to do away this ignorance; and in the first volume, which has already appeared, after an Introduction, in which he takes a general view of the population of the Austrian empire, and of the diversities which the different dialects occasion in its literature, he divides his chapters in the following manner: Literature of the Sclavonians, Bohemians, and Moravians; of the Slowacks in Hungary; of the Poles in Galicia, and in Austrian Silesia; Language and Writings of the Bulgarians; Literature of the Croatsians; Language and National Literature of the Dalmatians, Ragusians (or Rascians), and Illyrians; Literature of the Walachians in Hungary and Transylvania; Modern Greek Literature in the Austrian Monarchy; Italian Literature in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, in Dalmatia, in Illyria, and in the Tyrol; Armenian Literature at Venice and Vienna; Hebrew Literature in Austria, Bohemia, Moravia, Galicia, and Hungary; Oriental Literature.

The second volume will contain, 1. An Historical *exposé* of German Literature in the Austrian Empire; 2. The Latin Literature of the Hungarians; the Milanese and Venetian Dialects; the Language of the *Sell-communi*; that of the *Clementins*, &c.; 3. An Austrian Biographical and Bibliographical *Bibliothèque*; 4. A Catalogue *raisonné* of all the Periodical Works of Austria which have appeared to the present time; 5. A View of the Universities, Lyceums, Gymnasiums, Polytechnic and Primary Schools, and in general of all establishments of instruction; 6. A description of Libraries and Museums, and a summary account of the Learned Societies of the monarchy; 7. An account of Scientific Voyages undertaken by the Austrians; 8. An examination of Dramatic Works; 9. A Statement of the Austrian Book-Trade; 10. An *exposé* of Typography in the empire; 11. Details concerning the manufacture of Paper, and binding; 12. Account of plagiarisms and forging of books.

Such are the precious contents of a work, which in so many respects may be considered as one of the greatest monuments erected to literature; in the first volume of which the author has answered the high expectations that were conceived of his talents. — *Revue Encyclopédique.*

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PROFESSOR FRANCIS ROSSI, in a memoir communicated to the Academy of Turin, has embodied a variety of anatomical and pathological observations concerning the organ of sight and the defect called *squinting*, and proposes a method of correcting that disagreeable state of the eyes. One of the most remarkable of the observations is that which proves the presence of a great number of hydatids

of the size of a grain of millet in the choroid and retina, in the eyes of some individuals affected by certain imperfections of vision, such as that of seeing all objects deformed, or of perceiving them distinctly only in a certain situation, at a determinate distance, with a degree of light just sufficient to reach and not to pass by them.

M. Rossi has seen instances of squinting, which have taken place at an advanced age, and which have resisted all attempts to remedy the evil. According to his anatomical observations upon many individuals affected with this infirmity from the time of their birth, the defect is the necessary consequence of the inequality of the orbits of the eyes, which prevents the symmetrical arrangement of the organs, and of the muscles which cause their motion. But several accidental causes may disarrange the regular position of the *optic axes*; epilepsy, a lethargic fever, and sudden terror have sometimes produced this lamentable effect. M. Rossi has restored to their ordinary state the eyes of a man who became squint-eyed in consequence of asphyxy occasioned by carbonic acid; this cure was wrought by means of the galvanic pile. In regard to cases of squinting which are not decidedly incurable, M. Rossi has made successful trial of glasses, a description of which must be sought in the memoir, which, it is presumed, the journals of medicine will furnish for their readers. — *Ibid.*

HARLEM. — *Monument in honor of Ripperda.* Holland offers very few monuments erected to the memory of her great men. Except the statue of Erasmus, at Rotterdam, the mausoleum consecrated to the founder of the Republic, William the First, at Delft, and the tombs of some illustrious navigators, she has very few memorials of that kind. She has not seen fit even to this day to procure statues of Vondel, Hooft, and Cats, those *coryphæi* of her literature. The great artists of Holland may complain of the same injustice. Her learned men and philosophers, such as Grotius, Huygens, and Boerhaave, call up the same occasion for regret in this particular. In the mean time Harlem has for some years been an honorable exception. The monuments she has raised to her great citizens are very modest, it is true; but they do not, on this account, give less evidence of public gratitude. The festival that she celebrated some years since in honor of *Laurent Coster* is not forgotten; *Ripperda* now has his turn. *Wibold Ripperda* was distinguished in the heroic but fruitless defence of Harlem against the Spanish besiegers in 1572 and 1573. *Ripperda*, the faithful *Commandant* of the town, became the victim of Spanish cruelty, and died on the gibbet. It is to this victim that the monument is now raised. There is at Harlem an ancient body of *rhetoricians*, a kind of *troubadours*, who already flourished at the organization of the language and national poetry of the sixteenth century. The body of the *rhetoricians* at Harlem under the emblem of *Ceps de Vigne*, and with the device, *Love before every thing*, is perpetuated to this day. It holds a public session annually, in which its President, qualified as *Emperor*, pronounces an harangue in prose or in verse. In the solemnity of which we are speaking, which took place the 30th of April last, M. C. Koning performed that duty in modest prose, and M. V. Loosjes read some stanzas. The inscription on the monument is — *To the memory of Ripperda and of the Citizens of Harlem, in 1572 and 1573.* — *Ibid.*

# LIST OF BOOKS PUBLISHED AND IN PRESS,

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HILLIARD & BROWN.

*Cambridge, January 1, 1832.*

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THE  
AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW.

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FEBRUARY, 1832.

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ART. I. — *A Comprehensive Pronouncing and Explanatory Dictionary of the English Language, with Pronouncing Vocabularies of Classical and Scripture Proper Names.*  
By J. E. WORCESTER. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1830. 12mo. pp. 420.

THIRTY years ago it would have been thought by most Englishmen, great presumption, for an inhabitant of these United States to offer for general use a Dictionary of the English Language. They would have expected to find in it all sorts of local provincial words, and a departure from English undefiled, as great as that of the Jewish Rabbinical vocabularies from the pure Hebrew of Moses. Nor would an apprehension of serious corruptions, at that time, have been wholly groundless. Unauthorized words and phrases were getting into use ; and we are indebted to the timely intervention of some of our prominent scholars, after that period, for resisting any formidable encroachment on the purity of our tongue. They contended strenuously against whatever threatened to impair the character of our language, as the legitimate offspring of the English stock, or to throw obstacles in the way of our progress towards the literary elevation of our mother country, and thus to cut us off from the hope of being regarded as a constituent part with her in the republic of letters.

In 1806 appeared Webster's "Compendious Dictionary." It contained some heresies in respect to the vocabulary, the orthography, and pronunciation ; but fewer than were to be expected ; since, in the execution of the work, he fell much behind his own theories on these subjects. Indeed he went so far, in his Preface to that work, as to say, in respect to orthography, where great innovations were apprehended, that

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"no great changes should be made at once"; but at the same time he vindicated, too indefinitely for our heterogeneous tongue, "such gradual changes, as shall accommodate the written to the spoken language, when they do not violate established principles, and especially when they purify words from corruptions, improve the regular analogies of a language, and illustrate etymology." It is easily perceived, in a language like ours, what a revolution would be effected by the full operation of this doctrine, modified though it be by cautions and salvos. Mr. Webster's good sense, aided probably by the admonitions of public criticism, so far altered his views, that, instead of advancing in this work of reform in his after labors, great and meritorious labors too, in English Lexicography, he retraced his steps, and came forth with fewer singularities in his orthography than before.

In 1813 appeared a "Dictionary of the English Language," of considerable pretensions and cumbrous size, a "Classical Dictionary," so called, being united with it; a Classical Dictionary, somewhat peculiar and fanciful, in which Aaron and Abraham are placed in company with Achilles and Agamemnon, and Canaan and Rehoboth are in familiar juxtaposition with Carthage and Rome, and in general all sorts of Scripture names are intermingled with the philosophers, and poets, and orators, the mythology, the countries, and cities of ancient Greece and Rome. The title-page to the English Dictionary, in the place of the author's name, has — "By an American Gentleman." *Stat nominis umbra*. We believe the real name has been kept as profound a secret as that of the author of Junius's Letters. It was thought by the compiler of this work that the more extensive introduction of the technical terms and nomenclatures of the various arts and sciences added much to its value. The question at that time was fairly open, how far technical words constituted a part of a particular language, and were entitled to admission into a standard dictionary. Some of the greatest philosophical critics maintained that they did not belong, as such, to the vocabulary of a language, and should be given up to dictionaries of the various arts and sciences. But though it is difficult to accomplish much of this kind in a general dictionary, in a very satisfactory manner, and a chaos of words is liable to be introduced, ill-defined, and with little etymological explanation, yet we are satisfied, that in the present condition and advancement of learning

in England and in these United States, the introduction of technical words to some extent is imperatively demanded. It will always be found difficult, however, to prescribe the limits in such a way as to preserve any strict consistency. The same remarks are applicable to words and phrases of foreign languages, which are often found in English books, and, as we think, often disfigure them. How greatly were Addison and his coadjutors, those masters of true English style, though sometimes negligent and feeble, scandalized by the appearance of some such words, then just creeping into use, by means of the existing war between their country and France; such as *pontoons*, *marauder*, *cartel*, *corps*, *reconnoître*, *manœuvre*, &c., words now become as familiar as our own. But when, apart from technical use, we come to words introduced by the caprice of fashion or taste, well may our Saxon blood become heated, and spur us on to war for our native speech.

The merits of this Dictionary "by an American Gentleman" having been fairly weighed, the work was found wanting. It was made evident that the compiler had pursued his labors without a consistent preconceived plan, and that there was much carelessness and haste in its execution.

In the year 1828 appeared an edition of "Johnson's English Dictionary, as improved by Todd, and abridged by Chalmers; with Walker's Pronouncing Dictionary combined; to which is added Walker's Key to the Classical Pronunciation of Greek, Latin, and Scripture Proper Names." This was edited by Mr. J. E. Worcester, a gentleman then already well known for accuracy of learning, diligent research, and judicious application of his knowledge in regard to some other subjects. *Chalmers*, in a notice prefixed to his Abridgment, says, that it contains every word in Todd's Johnson. It was formed however from Todd's first edition. The second edition, published in 1827, contains nearly a thousand additional words, and was received in season to have those inserted in Worcester's Appendix. These, says Mr. Worcester, together with words added from other sources, make an excess above the number of words in Johnson's Abridgment, of more than fifteen thousand. Fearful as this additional host of words may appear at first sight, our fears and wonder will subside when we advert to the sources of these recruits. In the first place, *Todd* went far back, and gleaned after the old

English Lexicographers, in order to make a complete glossary of the early English writers. Next comes the multitude of words which have sprung up from improvements, discoveries, and inventions in arts and sciences, the extension of commerce, and the increasing interchange and community of fashion and learning between the nations of Europe. No trifling addition is made also by the extensive introduction of compounded words, and by words of various classes analogically formed, some of them before overlooked, and some of them of recent origin. If we should proceed to any thing like a detailed account in these particulars, the wonder at first excited by such a great accession would be greatly lessened, if it would not wholly vanish. To the words in this Dictionary, not found in Walker, the pronunciation is added according to his principles, so far as they could be applied. In regard to the orthography, Mr. Worcester made a few changes for the sake of consistency, which are always carefully specified.

This Dictionary, thus faithfully and judiciously compiled, may justly be regarded as a great accession to English Lexicography; containing as it does so complete a vocabulary, and exhibiting in respect to words of doubtful pronunciation, the authorities of other orthoëpists, in those cases, in which they vary from Walker.

Soon after this, and in the same year, we were greeted by Mr. Webster's long expected great Dictionary, in two large quartos. In his Advertisement to this work he says, that "the Dictionary of Walker has been found by actual enumeration to contain, in round numbers, thirty-eight thousand words. Those of Johnson, Sheridan, Jones, and Perry, have not far from the same number. The American edition of Todd's Johnson contains fifty eight thousand. In the work now submitted to the public, the number has increased to seventy thousand."

It may appear incredible that nearly twice as many words as are contained in Johnson, should so soon find place in an English dictionary. But the seeming mystery is easily explained. Nouns in common use, particularly compounded words, including also adjectives in the same form (almost illimitable) or analogically derived from them, and verbs derived from nouns (an uncontrollable process), either with or without change, such as *quarantine*, *electioneer*, *retort*, *magnetize*, constitute a part of the additions, amounting to several hundreds. Participles, derived from verbs, make another

large class, sparingly introduced into preceding English Dictionaries. Add to these, adjectives derived from proper names, legal terms, and above all, terms belonging to the arts and sciences, some of which have been vastly extended, some almost created, or the nomenclature of them in their divisions and ramifications so essentially changed and enlarged, as to form almost a new language,—and it is not wholly unaccountable that thirty-two thousand words should be added to Johnson's vocabulary.

A good deal was expected of Mr. Webster, and several things are accomplished by him, so far as his authority extends, in regard to orthography. In this respect, it seems to us that two things are especially worthy of the lexicographer's best endeavours,—namely, first, the fixing of what is loose and uncertain, and secondly, a consistency in words of analogous formation, so far as it can be attained without too great an outrage against custom, and even prejudice. The saving of a letter by spelling *fether*, *lether*, while *heather* and *weather* are allowed to enjoy their superfluity, and the elision of the final *e* in *doctrine*, *determine*, &c., and the expunging of *b* from *doubt* and *debt*, admitting that etymology can be fairly pleaded, amount to so little gain, and introduce such a disturbing force into the machinery of language, that we cannot give these speculations any countenance. For there is no reason why there should not be an offset to this frugality of letters in one case, by a generous admission of supernumeraries in others, where etymology can be as strongly urged. But we are pleased to find that Mr. Webster now lays no stress upon these things, which serve, in our opinion, to lessen attention to what is more important; and that his wishes and efforts are directed substantially to what we regard as our utmost need. To one who has attended only superficially to the subject, it must be a matter of great surprise to find in how many instances the usage in orthography is not yet settled, and in how many others analogy is violated. For what Mr. Webster has done to fix the spelling where usage is doubtful, and to establish the uniform operation of rules where there exists no reason for exceptions, we cordially welcome his labors. And we could heartily wish that labors so assiduous and long continued were in all respects so well directed, as to demand a judgment in his favor. But when, for example, he invades the botanical nomenclature, which, according to for-

mer notions, belongs rather to a Cyclopædia, than to a Dictionary of a particular language, we cannot perceive what good was to be expected. Is it credible that he looked forward to a revolution in this respect, and presumed that the standard botanical works should be made to conform to his dictation? This is certainly reversing the order of things. It is the purpose of his dictionary, or should be, to explain the names already existing in any art or science, and not to translate them; to make the best of the language of the authors, if he thought it belonged to him to define it, and not to tell them how they might have chosen better; in default of which he will have nothing to do with their gibberish. Besides, in what respect are *Monander*, *Monogyn*, and the rest, Anglicized though they may seem, in some sort, more intelligible to the English reader, than *Monandria*, *Monogynia*, &c.? There are also some smaller matters, in which we dissent from Mr. Webster in regard to orthography. He allows *apostrophy* and *catastrophy*, but not *hyperboly*; thinks that "*ammonia* anglicised forms an elegant word, *ammony*"; and prefers *picturesk* to the common spelling. But we have not room to go farther into detail, and would by no means magnify these blemishes, so as to counterpoise, in the judgment of our readers, any essential improvements which are to be found in the orthography of this Dictionary.

No less was expected of Mr. Webster concerning etymology than upon orthography. It was well known, from what he had previously made public respecting his pursuits, that he had long been employed in an unwearied study and comparison of different languages to ascertain their affinities and the derivation of words. He could not fail to perceive that there were lamentable chasms in the history of their travels, such often as to leave much to conjecture, and to produce much uncertainty respecting their identity. Hence it is, that while in a great portion of our words we readily perceive their agreement with those of the northern European dialects, or those of the Norman French, through which these last are for the most part readily traced to the Latin; yet when we attempt to connect them with the oriental dialects, some links in the chain are in general evidently lost, beyond all hope of discovery. Without going into particulars on this subject, for which we have no space, we heartily, and without fear of contradiction, maintain that the author of this Diction-



ary has entered more deeply and more successfully into etymological researches, and the comparison of languages, than any of his predecessors in the same vocation. And though we might with good reason, as it seems to us, dissent from some of his decisions upon this subject, it would give us no pleasure to lessen any one's respect for the work, by pointing out errors and faults, from which a dictionary, containing such extensive inquiries and speculations in the mazes of etymology, cannot be wholly free. In the North American Review for April, 1829, there is an examination of this Dictionary highly creditable to the author of the review, alike for thorough research, and the indulgent, generous spirit displayed towards the great philologist, who has toiled so long, and faithfully, and successfully in English Lexicography. We mention this Review principally on account of the remarks upon etymology and the affinity of languages, and the illustrations accompanying them. These remarks and illustrations, composing more than twenty pages, form a beautiful tractate upon this subject, at once clear and succinct, such as shows that the author is deeply versed in philology, and such as, so far as it extends, would reflect honor on a scholar of any land.

As a *defining* dictionary, the work of Dr. Webster is much extended. The defects and faults in this department of lexicography, which had originally crept into the English dictionaries, and had long been copied, are here supplied and corrected. The more recent acceptations of old words are also given, though it is to be regretted, that, in so many cases, the authority is not cited. In this part of his Dictionary, so indispensable, and yet so difficult, the author has done probably as much as could be reasonably expected; sometimes we think more than enough. And after all, in respect to the meaning of the great mass of words which belong legitimately and without dispute to the English language, as such, most of which words we find in Johnson, nothing has yet superseded his examples from standard authors, intended for the solution of difficulties, and the supply of defects. We speak feelingly and from long experience on this subject. In our dark distresses when attempting to settle the true or customary sense of words, and the pure idioms, which we have trembled for, with self-distrust also, amidst the corruptions which have surrounded us, we have received from Johnson those cheering rays of

light, for which we shall never cease to be grateful. Multitudes of words, which are as well defined in dictionaries as they well can be, still perplex the young writer; and it is not till he sees them applied to their subjects, and surrounded by their adjuncts, that he can become fully satisfied concerning their meaning and the propriety of their use. But a single lexicographer cannot accomplish every thing; and while we have felt prompted to pay this grateful tribute to Johnson in passing, we would by no means be thought to overlook the unquestionable superiority of Mr. Webster's Dictionary in other particulars.

As a *pronouncing* dictionary, Mr. Webster's differs from the prevailing authorities and practice in some respects, and the vowels, whose sounds in particular situations he thinks cannot be explained by any system of notation, he leaves untouched.

Mr. Webster published also an Abridgment of his large dictionary "for the use of primary Schools and the counting-house"; in which he has corrected some errors in orthography, and made some changes. "The reader is informed," he says, "that wherever discrepancies appear between this work and the large ones,\* this duodecimo volume, my last work, all written and corrected by myself, is to be considered as containing the pointing, orthography, and pronunciation which I most approve."

An Abridgment of Mr. Webster's large Dictionary, which was executed by Mr. J. E. Worcester, was published in 1829, in a large octavo form, to which is added, by the same hand, a synopsis of words differently pronounced by different orthoëpists, and Walker's Key to the Classical Pronunciation of Greek, Latin, and Scripture Proper Names.

This Abridgment contains all the words of the original work (70,000), to which are added all the words in Todd's Johnson, and such additional ones as appeared worthy of insertion. The work of abridgment therefore does not extend to the vocabulary; far otherwise, for it is undoubtedly the largest vocabulary of the English language yet produced, perhaps the largest that ever will be produced. The next arithmetical process, probably, will be that of subtraction. The leading and

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\* Alluding to his quarto Dictionary, and the Abridgment of the same by J. E. Worcester.

most important *etymologies*, and the *definitions* of the original work, are retained; but the *illustrations*, except in doubtful or contested cases, are omitted. — In regard to *orthography*, that of the original work takes the lead, and is followed by that which proposes a change or opportunity for choice.

Near the close of the year 1830, was published the Dictionary, whose title is placed at the head of this article. It is a convenient manual from its size, its compression, its comprehensiveness, and the clearness of the type; which, though necessarily small, is so distinct as to answer all the purposes for which the book is intended. Mr. Worcester tells us that he formed the plan of this work, when he was engaged in editing Chalmer's Abridgment of Todd's Johnson. That a work of this kind was needed, no one, who has attended to the subject, can doubt. And all who have examined Mr. Worcester's dictionary and are competent judges of its merits, must be satisfied that much has been done to supply a well known deficiency, in regard to books of this class. It does not contain so many words as Webster, by nearly a score and half of thousands; but it contains all words that are wanted in a *manual* English dictionary, for every man, woman, and child. In addition to the authorities, on the basis of which it is formed, namely Johnson and Walker, Jameson's Dictionary stands at the head of those made use of by Mr. Worcester, and many words are taken from Crabb's Technological Dictionary, Maunder's New and Enlarged Dictionary, and Webster's Dictionary.

The explanations of the words are as exact and complete as could be expected in so small a compass; and in the pronunciation of those concerning which orthoëpists differ, there are constant proofs of good judgment and an ear well trained in the art of distinguishing differences between kindred sounds.

We began our remarks in this review by adverting to the surprise which an Englishman would have felt, thirty years ago, at the appearance of an English Dictionary on this side the water. But how greatly things have changed. Professor Duglison, of the University of Virginia, an Englishman and a distinguished scholar, who has attended to English Lexicography and is acquainted with most of the works on this subject, says, "I can, without hesitation, award to this Dictionary the merit of being the best adapted to the end in view of any that I have examined. It is, in other words, the best portable 'Pro-

nouncing and Explanatory Dictionary ' that I have seen, and as such is deserving of very extensive circulation." It is, we believe, extending its circulation very widely, and we see no reason, why it should not, with those emendations which such a work must require, in which perfection can only be approximated, continue to spread more widely, and become the standard work of its kind.

A large Dictionary of the English Language is still, we think, a desideratum. The materials for such a work seem now to be very abundant, though the stores of some Philologists and Etymologists may yet afford more, and of greater value, than we are apt to suppose. To give a process by which such a work should be formed, might seem presumptuous. Yet there are some points on which we are so fully satisfied, that we are not afraid to speak our opinion; and whether right or wrong, to invite a discussion of the subject.

In the first place, the business of purification should be gone through in regard to our huge vocabulary, in which, hitherto, it seems to have been thought meritorious not only to retain every thing, but to crowd in every thing that would be tolerated. This sink and repository of heterogeneous corruptions, as Horne Tooke would call it, or this Augean Stable, as others might fancy to name it, filled with more than seventy thousand larger and smaller cattle, of native or foreign origin, should first be cleansed. Look a moment at the very beginning of our dictionaries. Are there not a thousand Latin words, genuine or barbarous, not found in any English vocabulary, as much entitled to admission as *abactor*, *abacus*, *abannition*? and as many French words with claims full as strong as *abbreuvoir*? And why should we continue to print even with stereotype a host of mere dictionary words which Johnson retained without pretending to find any authority, merely because some of his predecessors had committed such deeds of pedantry? Who would now introduce for the first time such words as *abare*, *abatude*, *abature*, *abditive*, *ablactate*, and so on to the end of the alphabet? And if a host of words of this sort have so long been a mere incumbrance, neither consulted to explain old English writers, nor called up by modern ones, with what reason do they remain, if it be not merely to swell the vocabulary, while they add nothing to its value?

Again, more consistency, in fact a well defined, methodical system should be settled and strictly applied, in regard to

compounded words, and technical and foreign words, whenever a thorough reformation is attempted in English lexicography. We do not believe that the dictionary of any other language is lumbered up with such a crude collection of words as that of ours, even after making all due abatements for the heterogeneous nature of the English language. A very wide knowledge of English literature and science, a very correct judgment, and great critical acuteness are requisite for the task we are proposing; but the time will come when one or more able scholars, possessing these requisite qualifications, will undertake it. So much for the vocabulary, the first essential thing required.

In regard to the explanation of words, and the illustration of them by authorities, a great portion of the labor is already accomplished. The definitions of Johnson are in general so good, and such improvements, and where new words are added, such, additions too, are made by Webster, that little remains to be sought. There are indeed defects and faults and superfluities in both; but a thorough knowledge of English, ready discrimination, and critical care and diligence can compass all that can be wished in this respect. Then as to the authorities and illustrative examples, what a treasure is at hand in Johnson! His examples may be abridged, greatly abridged perhaps; but in general they cannot be spared; no thorough English scholar will consent to have them passed by. The words which Johnson overlooked, and such as have gained a place in our vocabulary since his time, should be supported and explained in a similar manner. We look upon this sort of illustration as one of the most effectual means of preserving the purity and idiomatic beauty of our language; and shall always suspect those, who speak disparagingly of this part of the lexicographer's labors, to have been very careless observers of style, and to be very incompetent judges of the difference between genuine English idiom, and barbarous jargon.

We have very little to say about etymology. The great additions made by Dr. Webster to this department should be retained so far as they appear to be well founded. And in general we should be satisfied with the rejection of all spurious matter relating to this subject, from whatever quarter it has sprung, and a well digested collection and application of what serves to explain the origin and particularly the meaning of words, or even to gratify learned curiosity.

The utmost brevity has been aimed at in these remarks upon a wide subject; and if any should think they fill too many of our pages, our only plea arises from the importance of the subject to all readers, and from its being a subject also to which we shall not probably have occasion soon to recur.

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ART. II. — *Inaugural Discourse, delivered before the University in Cambridge, Massachusetts, September 3, 1831.*

By CHARLES FOLLEN, Professor of the German Language and Literature. Cambridge. Hilliard & Brown. 1831. 8vo. pp. 28.

THE German language and literature have of late years attracted much attention throughout Europe, and in this country, and are likely to attract a great deal more. A few words may therefore be allowed us, respecting their most obvious claims to notice. The German language is distinguished by the copiousness of its vocabulary, and its power of indefinite increase from its own stock. This arises from its being an original language, not made up like the English, of a motley mixture of Greek, Latin, and French, with Teutonic roots, but Teutonic throughout. A German compounds new terms almost *ad libitum*; and these compounds, being drawn from the stock of words already familiar to the people, are immediately understood by all, and therefore, if expressive, are easily admitted into use. Hence the German language has words for the most various shades of ideas, for many of which the English affords no corresponding terms. If we wish to form a new term in science or philosophy, we run to Greek. But, as words of such an origin are necessarily unintelligible to the great body of the people, they make their way into use very slowly, and few of them comparatively obtain currency. Hence the comparative poverty of the English tongue in terms expressive of the classifications of science, or of shades of thought and feeling, and hence one of the difficulties of clothing in an English dress the German systems of intellectual philosophy. The German Language is distinguished too for its great flexibility, and power of inversion and involution. This is owing in a considerable degree to the freedom allowed in placing the prepositions, which enables a German to give coherency and clearness to his endless sentences, with all their parentheses, illustrations, and qualifications, which, literally rendered in the

stiff English tongue, would present a scene of inextricable confusion. This power in the language, of continuing a train of thought unbroken by the numberless periods of an English page, produces great fluency of style, and enables the reader to keep his attention fixed on the leading ideas with comparative ease, while in English, in which a writer is so often compelled to break up his thoughts, and give to each qualification, illustration, or subsidiary idea, a separate sentence, a reader's attention is liable to be drawn from the leading train of thought, and lost in the merely accessary and auxiliary, or the writer, for the sake of being intelligible, retrenches more than he is disposed to do. The richness and flexibility of the German language are manifested in the remarkable transfusion of the spirit of foreign works of imagination into German versions. The German public appreciate as fully and admire as enthusiastically the beauties of Shakspeare in a German translation, as an Englishman or American does in the original. Such is the language. We shall now touch upon a few of the strong points of the literature.

The writers of Germany are distinguished for a liberal cosmopolitan character, for the power of appreciating all forms of excellence as well foreign as native, and a superiority to the pride and jealousy produced by a petty patriotism. They are distinguished for an independent love of truth, and a contempt of authority unsupported by reason ; for great thoroughness of research, and massy erudition. The causes of this character we must look for in the circumstances of their country. The governments of Germany are monarchical ; their power is arbitrary even where it is not in form despotic ; and the avenues to posts of honor and trust are barred against the great body of the people. The country is split into numerous states, each with its court, capital, and university. The states are many of them poor and politically insignificant, and must remain obscure unless they can find some cheap means of distinguishing themselves. The German princes have therefore resorted to the patronage of literature as an easy means of doing honor to themselves, and of employing the active spirits among their subjects. They found and endow universities, and labor to fill their chairs with the ablest men. The constitution of these universities is such as to favor an active competition among the instructors. No man is allowed to slumber. His fame will be eclipsed and his emoluments

diminished by active rivals, if he is not up and doing. This state of things tends to make many and thorough scholars, including within their ranks a large number of the ablest men in the country, who in more free states would have been struggling in the political arena. These men devote themselves to literature with the same determined zeal, the same independent spirit, and the same contempt for narrow prejudices, which, in a republic, would have made them the leaders and the rulers of the people. They give the tone to the literature of the country, and make it liberal, independent, and thorough. Other causes contribute to increase the number of scholars, and to elevate the literary character of Germany. In a population exceeding thirty-four millions, and divided into numerous states, the number of educated men required to fill the public offices must necessarily be large, and where there is a large number of educated men, many will devote themselves to literature. But the scholars of Germany are not only numerous, they are also divided. The numerous capitals and universities necessarily give rise to different circles, each disposed to criticize the rest; and the number of critical journals connected with these different circles exercise their office in a very independent spirit. Sciolism, pretension, and prejudice find thousands of detectors and hundreds of castigators. The body of German writers has been estimated at ten thousand, producing from three thousand five hundred, to five thousand volumes yearly. A man who has any regard to reputation, will be cautious of appearing before such a body of critics without careful preparation. Their great number tends moreover to awaken an *esprit de corps* among the German scholars, to give them a tone and views of their own, and to raise them above the prejudices of the society around them; and the spirit of competition among them is increased by the diversity of their pursuits. Excellence in one department produces kindred excellence in others. Mutual attrition puts all in a flame. From these and other causes thorough investigation, independent thinking, and liberal views, have become characteristic of German literature. No man takes an *ipse dixit* as the rule of his faith, but deduces his own conclusions from first principles with what sometimes appears indeed a tedious prolixity of elementary detail, in the eyes of an Englishman, or an American, accustomed from the business habits of his country to jump at once to practical conclusions, but



which on the whole gives great character, freshness, and scientific spirit to German writings.

As our principal stores of thought and knowledge, in this country, are necessarily drawn from English books, it may not be out of place to touch upon some of the deficiencies in English literature which the German is most adequate to supply. One is a want of liberality. We have already spoken of the cosmopolitan spirit of the German writers, and the willingness with which they pay tribute to excellence wherever it is to be found. To the causes already assigned for this spirit we might add the situation of the Germans in the centre of Europe, surrounded by and conversant with nations of different character and origin; also the extent of their country, with its numerous population, in whom the feeling of a common origin, language, and literature represses, in a great measure, the sectional spirit usually arising from political divisions. We might add that the interests of Germany, lie mostly within her own territory. She has no widely extended foreign commerce and colonies to bring her into collision with half the earth. Now the case is very different with England. Her situation is insular, her people are out of the high road of Europe, and suffer the usual consequences of seclusion, — self conceit, and a contempt for others; and having been long accustomed to consider themselves as the only freemen in Europe, and, from their wealth and naval superiority, to exert a powerful influence on its politics, they have become habituated to a supercilious tone towards the people of the continent. Moreover the commercial and colonial relations of England are immense. That gigantic polypus extends an arm to every corner of the earth, and is liable to have its sensitiveness excited in a thousand directions and in a thousand ways. The effect of all this is a proneness to ill will, jealousy, and a spirit of depreciation towards foreigners; and the effects of this tendency are very visible in English literature. Now, as we are nurtured in the literature of England from our cradles, it seems to be a matter of some consequence to avoid imbibing the insular prejudices and commercial jealousies of our transatlantic brethren; and the liberal spirit which characterizes the literature of Germany will make it a very efficient antidote. We may be allowed to say too, that we do not consider English literature as characterized by the same independence, the same love of truth in the abstract, and the same determination to carry

principles to all their legitimate conclusions, which distinguish the literature of Germany. Notions once rooted in the literature of England maintain their ground very sturdily. An aversion to change, a determination to adhere to old ways as long as they are tolerable, seems to make a part of the English character. The constitution of government and the laws of England are founded, in a great measure, on prescription. No change can be made without a violent struggle. The cumbrous machinery and immense expenditure of the government, with the overgrown wealth of its established church, tend moreover to create a very numerous class of persons attached to the existing state of things in politics and religion. The thousand holders and ten thousand expectants of office are firm friends to things as they are. The army of churchmen *in esse* or *in posse* are staunch upholders of the Thirty-nine Articles. Hence the cry of radicalism or infidelity which is thundered against innovators in politics and religion, including all religious, philosophical, and historical writers whose opinions militate against the views of the powers that be. Moreover the spirit of that great work-shop and counting-house of the globe is eminently practical. Great principles are generally considered by the writers of England not mainly with reference to their abstract truth, but to their practical application. They are made subjects of party discussion, and are attacked or defended according as they favor or thwart the views of the respective parties. Those who read English literature exclusively, become therefore accustomed to partial views, and will find their horizon much extended by stepping into the literary field of Germany.

In regard to learning we presume there is no question of the superiority of the German literati, collectively speaking, both in the variety of their studies and the thoroughness of their research. In Germany, literature is a profession, requiring for its successful pursuit the same unflinching spirit as the other professions. It is a country of universities without rich endowments to encourage indolence, but furnishing numerous rewards for meritorious effort. In England there is comparatively little demand for professed scholarship. Her universities have been few, their endowments rich, and the field of active life so wide that the number of men who devote themselves strenuously to learned labor is small. Hence German literature is far richer than English in many departments of

learned research, in works belonging to philology, biblical criticism, classical antiquities, ecclesiastical history, &c.

The polite literature of Germany has much to render it attractive. It is the youngest in Europe, and most strongly impressed with the stamp of the time. It has grown up during the last hundred years, and is one of the fruits of the strong excitement of the period. It speaks in tones, with whose spirit and meaning the reader is familiar. The literature of the South of Europe, at least much of the finest part of it, is the product of a state of things which has gone by. It cannot be understood or felt without a study of the times to which it belongs. To appreciate the genius of the writer, to sympathize with his love or hate, his enthusiasm or his indignation, we must withdraw ourselves from the influence of our habitual associations, and labor to conceive the effects of social relations to which we are strangers. It requires no small degree of abstraction and critical analysis to bring ourselves into a state in which our feelings can be properly affected. Our feelings in fact must take their tone from our judgment. The necessity of a process of this sort must of course greatly limit the number of admirers, and the amount of admiration. A lively and general interest can arise only from a direct appeal to men's sensibilities, and in that we think the German literature exceeds the Italian or the Spanish. Its writers too have been devoted students of English literature, and their warm admiration of Shakspeare would of itself be sufficient to assure us that much of the fine thought, fancy, and feeling, on which we have dwelt fondly from childhood, has been transfused into German literature. We may add, that we belong to the Teutonic stock, and partake in the Teutonic character. The spirit which crossed the English channel with our Saxon forefathers found its way in later times over the Atlantic ocean. The usages of ordinary life, too, which knit themselves so intimately with the feelings of a people, and affect them so powerfully, have much similarity in both countries. A rigorous climate accustoms both nations to in-door occupations and amusements, disposes them to study, to grave reflection, to deep feeling, and domestic attachments; gives rise to similar wants and similar labors, and makes a thousand habitual associations common to both, which immediately awaken the sympathies of an American or English reader of German literature.

This rapid survey of some of the prominent points of German literature will show our opinion of its value. We will only add a word or two on its adaptation to our wants. Ours is a country, where it is easy to acquire a little learning, but difficult to acquire much; and the consequence is a pretty wide diffusion of superficial scholarship. Separated as we are by a wall of waters three thousand miles wide from the cultivated nations of Europe, humiliating comparisons are not forced upon us, and we are apt to plume ourselves upon very moderate attainments. An acquaintance with the stores accumulated and the talent displayed by the scholars of Germany would increase our knowledge, our modesty, and our industry. We are a practical people, immersed in busy pursuits. Our country offers a wide field for active effort. Its great resources are but partially developed. The avenues to wealth are not yet choked up. The prizes of political power are within the reach of strenuous talent; and where wealth and power can be had for seeking, the paths of studious life will be comparatively little trodden. And yet there is no country where knowledge, and knowledge too of that sort which is gained by solitary study, is more needed. A people who govern themselves should be acquainted with history. A people whose religious faith is untrammelled should understand the principles and proofs of their religion. Ignorance will make them skeptics or mystics, or each alternately. A people among whom there is no restraint on the expression of opinion should be able to discern between the true and the false, should understand the principles of reasoning and the nature of evidence. If they are to hear public lectures for the propagation of immorality, they should have an antidote in an enlightened spirit. If they are to "prove all things," they should be so instructed as to "hold fast that which is good." For such a people the means of knowledge and intellectual accomplishment should be provided most abundantly. It is not indeed to be expected that a large part of the population will be able to avail themselves of them to their full extent; but it is of importance, that those who give the tone to the nation at large, should have the best means of culture which the age affords, and among these the literature of Germany holds a distinguished place.

But it is time to close these remarks, which have been occasioned by the Inaugural Discourse of Dr. Follen, in

which the character of German literature is exhibited with an ability to which we can make no claim, and in a style of which the ease and elegance would prevent any suspicion of the writer's foreign origin, if his thorough acquaintance with his subject did not prove him to be a native of Germany.

After stating some of the causes of the low condition of German literature in the seventeenth century, and the early part of the eighteenth, mentioning its revival in the latter part of that century, paying an eloquent tribute to Mad. de Staël, whose "*L'Allemagne*" first directed general attention to the merits of German literature, and showing the unfortunate selection of the first modern German works translated into English, Dr. Follen proceeds to examine some of the grounds of the general regard, which of late years has grown up for German literature. The first department of this literature which he treats is philosophy or metaphysics. As the German philosophy is a subject of great interest, we shall give a portion of his remarks upon it.

"Of all modern nations, I believe the Germans deserve the credit of having formed the most perfect idea of this great science; an idea which lies at the foundation of all their philosophical works, particularly since the great revival of philosophy through the influence of Kant. The various branches of knowledge, the natural sciences, mathematics, history, ethics, and theology, contain each of them a copious and various detail of facts and speculations; but also some general principles from which others may be deduced, and under which all the particulars be arranged in a systematic manner. Now these principles themselves form the substance of philosophy. Philosophy, according to the German idea of it, is the system of the fundamental and regulating principles of all the various branches of human knowledge. So far therefore as the universe is revealed to human knowledge, philosophy is the system of the universe." pp. 10, 11.

"It would lead me too far, to give so much as an outline of all that has been done in this vast field of intellectual enterprise. One point, however, I feel bound to touch upon, because it may tend to do away a current error, with regard to the general character of German Philosophy. German Philosophy has been accused of a tendency to materialism and skepticism, and of leading to a denial of those spiritual realities which form the foundation of the Christian faith, — the soul of man, and the soul of the universe. 'German materialism,' and

'German skepticism,' have been used as by-words in works, which are generally, and in some respects justly admired. Now the fact is, that in France, the whole school of modern philosophy, from Condillac and the Encyclopedists, down to Cousin, the first decided opposer of this school, consists of advocates of materialism; and in England, the same system was established by Hobbes, and indirectly promoted by Locke, until Hume converted it into absolute skepticism; while the records of German Philosophy, from Leibnitz to Kant and his disciples, Fichte, Schelling, Jacobi, and Fries, do not exhibit the name of a single materialist or absolute skeptic. This remarkable phenomenon is not owing to a want of freedom in expressing opinions different from those laid down in established creeds, supported by government or by public opinion; for notwithstanding all the arbitrary restraints upon the expression of *political* sentiments in Germany, it is certain that there is no country in which, ever since the reformation of the church, there has been so much liberty in the profession of *philosophical* and *religious* opinions. True, this freedom of sentiment is not owing altogether to a high esteem for the rights of the mind, but in a great measure to a reprehensible indifference on these subjects, favored by the skepticism of some of the rulers, as under the reign of Frederick the Second, of Prussia. But whatever be the cause of this freedom from restraint, in the expression of philosophical and religious opinions, it proves, that this remarkable fact, that among all the philosophers of Germany there has not been one materialist, cannot be ascribed to circumstances and institutions of society, but must be found in the very character of German Philosophy. Indeed, if there is any thing individual and characteristic in the literature, particularly the philosophic literature of any nation, that of the Germans is signalized by its loyalty to spiritual truth, as well as by its tendency to universal comprehensiveness. The philosophic tendency of the German mind has had a decided influence upon every department of learning. Examine every branch of science, from the highest to the lowest, from the works on religion and morality to those on the cultivation of the garden, the field, and the forest, and you will find the same scientific method, — the exact and faithful workmanship of the same spirit that lives disembodied, mourning or rejoicing, sporting or worshipping, in the full and free effusions of German poetry.

"In no department, however, is the spirit of German philosophy so strikingly and continually manifested, as in literary criticism. Every book of importance that is published in any

quarter of the globe, is analysed and criticized in the literary gazettes of Germany, supported chiefly by the learned men in the different universities. Their reviews are really what they pretend to be, not merely occasional essays, skimming over the fluctuating surface of the literary deep under a borrowed flag, but serious and strict examinations of the contents and the merits of each work. This scrutiny is founded upon a thorough knowledge of all that has been accomplished in the department to which the work belongs, separating what others have said from that which is the author's own property, and, from this original matter, selecting those results which science herself may deem worthy to call her own. No one, whether native or foreigner, can be a constant and attentive reader of the critical works of Germany, without reaping for his own mind, an abundant reward for his industry." pp. 12-15.

Dr. Follen then proceeds to theology, in which the deep researches of German scholars are well known; and comments on the charge of skepticism, which has been brought against German theological writers. He then touches upon the jurisprudence, medical science, mathematics, philology, and poetry of Germany. On the last he dwells with fondness, and eulogizes it with equal truth and eloquence. After some remarks on the intimate connexion of the German and English languages, "which show that the ancestors of both nations must have been united, not merely under one military leader, but in daily life, under the same roof, at the same fireside," he proceeds,

"Tales and stories, the wonders of Red Riding-Hood, the Glass Slipper, and many others, handed down by those learned and faithful chroniclers of the wide empire of little men, the nurses, while they lead the American child back to the home which his fathers left, carry his little cousins in England over to their father-land, even the old Saxon nursery. Proverbs and 'golden sayings,' the good old household furniture and family jewels of the nation, have not yet gone so entirely out of use or fashion, as not to remind all, whose mother tongue is either English or German, of the common ancestors, from whom they are inherited.

"There is a resemblance and affinity, not only between the two languages and the literary productions of each nation, but in the very mode of perceiving and feeling them. I believe that those who have received a genuine English education, are, more than other foreigners, prepared to enter fully and intimately into the idiomatical strength and beauty of the German

classics; and the farther they advance, the more they perceive that, in studying German, they are grounding themselves in their own language and literature. On the other hand the mere fact, that the Germans alone possess a translation of Shakspeare, which makes him, if I may so say, a native poet, and have a critical exposition of his dramas, which his own countrymen read with advantage and pleasure, — this fact alone would be sufficient to show that those works which come from the very heart of English genius, find also in Germany kindred minds and an understanding heart." — p. 26.

The extracts which we have made from this Discourse will give our readers some idea of its merits. We recommend it to them as a highly interesting sketch of German literature, and a valuable introduction to its study.

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ART. III. — *A Catechism of Natural Theology.* By I. NICHOLS, D. D., Pastor of the First Church in Portland. Second Edition: with Additions and Improvements. Boston. 1831. 12mo. pp. 215.

THE former edition of this work was a well-digested and useful compend of some of the most interesting facts and principles in the science of natural theology. We are glad that it met with sufficient encouragement to authorize a second edition, which is now before us in an improved form, and with valuable additions. We notice a great superiority in the typographical execution and the style of engraving in the present edition, which, in a work of this kind, we regard as of prime importance.

The author has succeeded in presenting, in a small compass, the striking illustrations of the Divine power and goodness, which have been collected from different works of nature by preceding writers and embodied in many volumes. The fine reasonings of Paley, and the graphic descriptions of Charles Bell, are condensed and applied with singular judgment and good taste. The best portion of the work, we think, is that which treats of Animal Mechanics, — a subject so clearly and beautifully demonstrated by the last-named writer. We have not detected any errors in Dr. Nichols's statements of scientific facts, and, from his well-known accuracy, we presume that none of any consequence occur.



We cordially recommend this work to the notice of parents and teachers in general, believing that they will not easily find a more lucid explanation of the interesting topics which it discusses, nor a subject more adapted to excite and improve the young minds, of which they have the charge.

As a specimen of the author's manner, we quote the following description of the architecture of the human head.

"*T.* Do you think of any evidence of design in the form of the head ?

"*A.* Round vessels are the least liable to be broken, or pressed in. Thus, a thin watch glass, because it is rounded up in the middle, will bear a very hard push. A full cask may fall with impunity, where a square box would be dashed to pieces. A very thin globular flask or glass, corked and sent down many fathoms into the sea, will resist the pressure of water around it, where a square bottle, with sides of almost any thickness, would be crushed to atoms. The common egg-shell is another example of the same class. What hard blows of the spoon or knife are often required to penetrate this wonderful defence, provided for the dormant life, or living principle, contained within the egg ! The arches of bridges, the roofs of houses, the helmets of soldiers, &c., are all constructed upon the same principle. This is not only the general form of the case which has to cover and protect the brain ; but, wonderful to think, the head is most rounded precisely in those places, where, in falling, it would be most likely to strike the ground. These are, the middle of the forehead, the projecting part of the head behind, and the upper portions upon each side, or those least protected by the shoulders. Anatomists also observe, that just in those situations where a carpenter strengthens his roofs by braces, there the roof of the skull will be found to be strengthened by strong ridges of bone on the inside, which answer the same purpose.

"*B.* Any one may perceive, that the round form of the head is the most beautiful, but few, it is probable, have ever thought of any other advantage.

"*T.* But this is a small part of the wisdom displayed in this wonderful structure.

"*A.* The skull is a double case ; and may be compared to two bowls, one within the other. The outer bowl is a tough and woody kind of bone. The inner bowl is of a much more hard and brittle texture ; anatomists give it the name of *vitreous*, from a Latin word, which signifies *glass*. What completes the contrivance, there lies between, a corky, spongy kind of

bone, anatomists call it the diploe, — and each of these particulars has its advantage. Our kind Architect seems to have contemplated several distinct securities in this structure, which are made necessary by different and not infrequent dangers to which we are exposed. It is readily seen, that one familiar danger is, that of the head being pierced through by any penetrating body, as a fork, a penknife, the corner of a stone, &c.; and hence the advantage of a hard and glassy cover about the brain, capable of turning the edge of any sharp or pointed instrument. But then, a covering hard and glassy throughout would be subject to be chipped and cracked continually. Under these circumstances, the double case is plainly the true mechanical contrivance, that is, an *inner* bone calculated to resist any cutting or pointed body, — *plated over* with another, less subject to be scaled or splintered by strokes upon the outside. Such is the architectural contrivance exhibited in the skull." — pp. 17 – 19.

The engravings to which we have alluded are as well executed, as it is reasonable to expect they should be in a work of this kind, which must be afforded at a low price; and they are well adapted to illustrate, by visible representations, the descriptions of the human frame, and other subjects embraced in the work. A good accompaniment to studies of this kind, is "Paxton's Illustrations of Paley's Natural Theology." This was republished in Boston in 1827, and very well executed; and, though it is too costly for general use, one or two copies might be afforded for the higher classes in most of our Sunday Schools. It contains very neat graphic representations of the organs of sense, of human bones and muscles, of the structure of animals, or comparative anatomy, and of insects and plants.

ART. IV. — 1. *Travels in Malta and Sicily, with Sketches of Gibraltar, in 1827.* By ANDREW BIGELOW, Author of "Leaves from a Journal in North Britain and Ireland." Boston. Carter, Hendee, & Babcock. 8vo. pp. 550.

2. *Journal of a Tour to Malta, Greece, Asia Minor, Carthage, Algiers, Port Mahon, and Spain, in 1828.* By SAMUEL WOODRUFF, Esq., Agent of the Greek Committee of the City of New York for the Distribution of

Provisions to the suffering Inhabitants of Greece. To which is appended, *An Account of the Distribution of the Cargo of Provisions and Clothing to the Suffering Greeks by the Agents of the Greek Committee of the City of New York, sent in the brig Herald, 1828.* Hartford. Cooke & Co. 1831. 12mo. pp. 283.

WHEN we first looked at Mr. Bigelow's volume we were somewhat startled and appalled by its size ; and after reading it, though in the course of reading we forgot our first impressions, we were satisfied that it might have been shorter. Its details are often too minute for the taste of many readers ; and yet this very minuteness has its advantages. The author's quick observation, and patient particularity of description, produce many curious and interesting facts, which most travellers would overlook or suppress, whether in the economy of the great element on which he was wasted, or in the manners, customs, characters of persons, productions of the earth, scenery, and natural curiosities of the places which he visited. These things therefore may pass without much serious objection. There is another characteristic of these travels which some may think requires a little apology. The author too frequently slides from the objects before him to the subjects which they suggest. The sight of an American ship of war leads him to speak of the naval affairs of different countries ; the reception of the Message of the President of the United States lures him into a discussion of the general politics of Europe ; a case of small pox suggests remarks on vaccination and varioloid ; the perusal of Sir Harry Neal's reply to strictures on the admiral's conduct before Algiers, in Shaler's " Sketches " of that regency, gives occasion to speak of the policy of Britain and America towards the Barbary powers ; and the missionary labors at Malta induce him to remark at some length upon the operation of missionaries and missionary societies. None of this, to be sure, is far-fetched ; and it is all very good too, as we might expect from so enlightened a traveller, and a gentleman of so much information and learning. But it shows that the book might have been shorter.

We have met with some very severe strictures upon Mr. Bigelow's Travels in regard to another point, and an invidious comparison of them, with those of a gentleman of very dis-

tinguished talents, whose works were noticed in our preceding number. We allude to the alleged harshness of Mr. Bigelow's remarks upon the Catholics, which has brought upon him the charge of sectarian virulence. And the prejudice excited against him does not stop here, but calls forth, by strong implication at least, an attack upon the whole book, as a heavy and tedious production. There is a seeming want of generosity in such sweeping censure, however much an author may have misjudged or offended in certain particulars. In regard to the frequent attacks upon the Catholic priesthood and ceremonies in Malta and elsewhere, it appears that Mr. Bigelow was aware of the danger of an ill-interpretation ; for in his Preface he affirms, in order to defend himself against the charge of cherished prejudice, that his prepossessions, from what he had seen in his own country, were favorable to the Catholics. But the material questions are, whether the author's statements are true, — whether, if true, they ought to be made public, — and whether, if made public, he ought, or ought not, to abstain from adding his own commentaries. And these questions we are willing to suppose that any of our readers, and Mr. Bigelow's readers, can answer as well as we can. If he has exaggerated any thing, or set down aught in malice, let him be chastised. If he has made his exhibitions of what is in itself revolting, in bad taste, let him be criticized and corrected. If he repeats them too often, or with too little variety, let them be shunned. It does not seem to us that Mr. Bigelow has expressed in general any more than Protestants would, for the most part, feel in witnessing what he describes. Every enlightened Christian, Catholic or Protestant, we should think, would unite with him in the prevailing feeling of compassion which bursts forth on these occasions, excited by the miserable degradation of intellect to which beings possessing immortal souls can be thus subjected ; we will not add, of abhorrence towards those who, peculiarly circumstanced, if they do not purposely abuse their power, do not see how it might be exercised for real or greater good. We are not casuists enough to say what feeling or judgment should prevail concerning them ; because we cannot estimate all the circumstances of the case, or conceive ourselves so fully in their situation, as to apply the golden rule of our Saviour.

Mr. Bigelow has sometimes dwelt too long on this subject,

as well as upon some others; and his narrations and descriptions might often be improved by being more condensed. Words and phrases also occur, which, though they might not call for criticism in a private journal, should have been avoided in coming before the public. But whatever be the faults of the work, and we have touched upon the prominent ones, it is far from being a dull book, or a book of little value; and no one can fail to sympathize and feel a common interest with a traveller of such activity and zeal, — with an observer of men and things so constantly on the alert, delineating with such freshness, though it may be with a pencil too rapid and hasty, whatever chances to meet his view, or is sought out by curiosity and labor.

Gibraltar, besides its remarkable physical aspect and peculiarities, is described, as we might suppose, to be a dull military town, in which there is very little to interest a stranger, and where every thing is monotonous and stupefying to those who have in it their constant abode.

Malta, on the other hand, affords bountiful materials, considering its small dimensions, for the observation and records of the traveller. Mr. Bigelow has made the most of them, and, we should think, has overlooked scarcely any thing of consequence. He speaks of the buildings, streets, and aqueducts, the condition of the inhabitants, their dress, vehicles, husbandry, language, religion, civil polity, &c.; the knights not being forgotten in the successive periods of their history, — in their glory, decline, and final extinction.

The mixture of inhabitants in Malta, including some from almost all countries on the Mediterranean coast and islands, besides French, Dutch, and English, produces no small confusion of tongues. But there is a language belonging to the great mass of inhabitants, which is thus described by Mr. Bigelow.

“The language of the mass of the populace is harsh and unmusical. It is a corruption of the Arabic, and possesses, it is said, an affinity to the ancient Punic.

“At present, the Maltese dialect is destitute of even a fixed alphabet. In writing it, it is necessary to resort to foreign characters, and every one, being at liberty to spell as he pleases, endeavours to accommodate the orthography to the current pronunciation. There must be much diversity occasioned by so fluctuating a standard, and the different impres-

sions made on the ear. But the inconvenience is not material, as the language is chiefly used by the illiterate islanders, and the distances in Malta are too short to make it necessary, in any event, to conduct business often by the pen." p. 124.

The amount of population in the island of Malta is very remarkable.

"In 1798, this island alone numbered ninety thousand inhabitants, and Goza twenty-four thousand. The combined amount is about the same now, as the prevailing estimates give from one hundred and ten, to one hundred and fifteen thousand for the entire population. Malta and Goza, with the petty isle of Cumino between, have a superficies of only one hundred and seventy square miles. Assuming then the population of 1798 as the sum at present, there are no less than six hundred and seventy inhabitants for every square mile, congregated on these rocks. This number is prodigious, and the ratio is far greater than is any where else ascertained to exist." p. 145.

With such a population, we might well suppose, the degree of suffering must be great; and there is in fact a great deal of most pitiable wretchedness. But unwearied pains has been and is taken to make a productive soil, and with remarkable success. The process is thus described by Mr. Bigelow.

"The Maltese begin by levelling the rock, which, however, is allowed to incline a little, that all superabundant water may be drained off. They then heap together stones, broken into pieces of an irregular form, which they place about a foot deep, and cover with a bed of the same stones nearly reduced to powder. . . . They proceed to place on the stratum already described a layer of earth, brought either from other parts of the island or taken out of the clefts of the neighbouring rocks; next a bed of compost, and afterwards a second bed of earth. The preparation is then completed. These *plateaus* not only cover the originally barren plains of Malta, but are bolstered up by walls, shaped into every possible angle, against all the decilivities of the hills. Such has been the perseverance of the proprietors of these grounds, that they have made them equally productive as the strongest natural lands." p. 153.

We cannot recount the history of the knights of Malta, who are involuntarily associated in our minds with the name of the island; and the following summary is all we can give on this subject.

"In the best days of the Order, five hundred knights had their homes in Malta. They dwelt in the sumptuous edifices and stately palaces of the capital, or, retired to their country-houses, which were the seats of hospitality, they cultivated, at generous cost, the soil of the rugged isle. Now, their palaces and villas, their gardens and demesnes, with this proud fortress wherein they trusted, have all passed into the possession of strangers. Only two knights remain in Malta, the venerable survivors of a fallen but illustrious line. They live as exiles in the scenes of their ancient homes. Their presence recalls the memory of the stern old Roman wandering a mendicant over plains once signalized by the valor of his arm, and the language of the supplicant they might almost adopt, — 'Date obolum Belisario.'

"The knights, in every point of view, were an extraordinary race, — extraordinary in their character, as military hospitaliers, church-robed warriors, and sworded monks, — in their history, for their deeds of gallantry and martial fame, — in the lesson of their fall, exhibiting the transitoriness of human glory. 'Yesterday, they might have stood against the world; now, none so poor as to do them reverence.' " p. 265.

There are many passages which we should gladly select for our readers, pertaining to what is peculiarly interesting both in Malta and Sicily; but we cannot afford the space. We therefore take leave of these Travels with our acknowledgments to the author for the rich entertainment and valuable instruction derived from his journal.

Mr. Woodruff's *Tour*, in the form of letters, contains a regular journal. His continuance at Malta was short, and his account of it is brief. But his residence in Greece was of sufficient duration and under circumstances favorable to give him ample opportunities for furnishing an account of the country and its condition, of which he made a discreet use. He leans to the favorable side of the character of the Greeks; furnishing all reasonable apologies for their faults and crimes, and a due measure of praise to their virtues and excellences.

The following description of the late President of Greece, Count Capo d'Istria, or d'Istrias, whose tragic end has lately come to our knowledge, comprises in a short compass the essentials of a biographical notice of that distinguished personage.

"He is now [July, 1828,] about fifty years of age; in his person well formed, of middling stature, and graceful in his

carriage and demeanor. His countenance is placid and inviting, his eyes piercing and intelligent, yet pleasant and conciliating. I cannot better describe his face in any particular, than by comparing it with that of the late Alexander Hamilton. The similarity is striking.

"He was born at Corfu, one of the Ionian islands, of an ancient and highly respectable Greek family, who have long borne the name of Capo d'Istrias (head or chief of the Istrias). This name, or rather title, arose, as is stated, from this circumstance. Between Corfu and Ithaca is a cluster of small islands known by the name of "The Istrias." These for many generations past, have been owned by this family, who have derived a large income from the product of these possessions. In the early part of his life, he spent several years at school, in Italy. When about thirty years of age, he went, by invitation of Alexander, to Petersburg, in Russia, where, after being employed in many different and honorable offices, he was appointed by the Emperor, Secretary of State for foreign affairs. In that office he continued, highly honored and esteemed by Alexander for his talents and integrity, until chosen President of Greece in 1827. No man, I presume, within the limits of Greece or elsewhere, could be found better qualified for the arduous duties which the acceptance of this office devolves upon him. In this great and good man are happily united the scholar, the philanthropist, the statesman, and patriot." p. 61.

Mr. Woodruff's journal is written in a simple, unpretending style, and affords a good deal of information in a small compass.

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ART. V. — *Memoirs of the Life of Sir Walter Raleigh, with some Account of the Period in which he lived.* By MRS. A. T. THOMSON, Author of "Memoirs of the Court of Henry the Eighth." Philadelphia. Carey & Lea. 1831. 12mo.

RALEIGH, in his speech at his execution, says, "I have lived a sinful life in all sinful callings, having been a soldier, a captain, a sea-captain, and a courtier, which are all courses of wickedness and vice." This appeared to him as the sum of his life, when he looked back from the scaffold over nearly three-score and ten years, marked with almost every variety of human fortune. How different the estimate that most of



us had formed of his remarkable career. We had perhaps a remembrance only of his active life and brilliant fortunes, of the voyages he made or patronized to widely separated regions of our own continent, and that his memory was associated with that persecuted plant which is now such an article of commerce and luxury the world over. Or we may have known Raleigh best as the valiant and romantic Tinias of the Faery Queen, or as the imaginative young man at Say's Court, in his "crimson velvet cloak," the adherent of Sussex, and the fortunate courtier of the fastidious and exacting Elizabeth, as he is described in Kenilworth. We had thought of him perhaps as the lover of elegant art, the student of antiquities, the patron of genius and learning, and the polisher of our prose. And when to all these and other bright images, we joined his terrible fate, and saw the injured and broken down old man, so patient, so free from all terror, ostentation, contempt, or resentment, it seemed as if new dignity and noble virtue were given to his whole life, and the character once only splendid, was now venerable and holy. And yet such was the sentence he pronounced against himself, as he besought those about him to join with him in prayer for forgiveness. Such were the words that he thought became him before God, though he had just shown a natural anxiety to leave a fair name with the world by vindicating himself from the charges that had been made against him. Let us give a little attention to the extraordinary life and character that are thus brought to our notice. Probably no public man of Elizabeth's time is so popularly known at this day, at least among us, as Raleigh.

And first, it must be borne in mind that he was to make his own way in the world. When we see him by the side of the favored Sidney or Essex, a retainer of eminent peers, and countenanced by the queen, we are apt to forget how much he had contended with, and to ascribe perhaps more importance than we should to his well known "splendor of attire and politeness of address; to a good presence in a handsome and well compacted person; a strong natural wit and a better judgment; and to a bold and plausible tongue, whereby he could set out his parts to the best advantage; all very engaging advocates for royal favor, especially in a female sovereign." [Oldys, p. 43. Oxf. Ed.] It was a very different thing for Raleigh, in humble circumstances, to secure

the good opinion of so keen a judge as Elizabeth, so jealous of "new men," and so guarded in bestowing her confidence, and for the obscure George Villiers to fascinate the feeble James and rise to a dukedom. Raleigh in his old age dared to say, "I present my thoughts to the world, to which I am nothing indebted." [Preface to his History.]

We have but few particulars of his life, from his birth in 1552, to his first voyage in 1579. A sort of conjectural biography generally fills a large place in the memoirs of those who lived in distant times, and especially when something is to be said of their younger days. Mrs. Thomson's work has but little of this; though Raleigh would not have complained if she had ventured farther in the use of inference from probabilities. The following passage from his History of the World, shows him a very good-natured critic of those who love to fill up the vacant spaces in history.

"Things, whereof the perfect knowledge is taken away from us by antiquity, must be described in history, as geographers in their maps describe those countries whereof as yet there is made no true discovery; that is, either by leaving some part blank, or by inserting the land of pigmies, rocks of loadstone, with headlands, bays, great rivers, and other particularities agreeable to common report, though many times controlled by following experience, and found contrary to truth. Yet, indeed, the ignorance growing from distance of place allows not such liberty to a describer, as that which ariseth from the remediless oblivion of consuming time. Therefore the fictions, or let them be called conjectures, painted in maps, do serve only to mislead such discoverers as rashly believe them, drawing upon the publishers either some angry curses or well deserved scorn; but to keep their own credit, they cannot serve always. To which purpose I remember a pretty jest of Don Pedro de Sarmiento, a worthy Spanish gentleman, who had been employed by his king in planting a colony upon the Straits of Magellan; for when I asked him, being then my prisoner, some question about an island in those straits, which methought might have done either benefit or displeasure to his enterprise, he told me merrily, that it was to be called the Painter's Wife's Island: saying, that whilst the fellow drew that map, his wife sitting by desired him to put in one country for her; that she, in imagination, might have an island of her own. But in filling up the blanks of old histories, we need not be so scrupulous. For it is not to be feared that time should run backward, and by

restoring the things themselves to knowledge, make our conjectures appear ridiculous." *Hist. of the World*. B. 2. Chap. 23. Sect. 4. Oxf. Ed. Vol. iv. p. 683.

We know that Raleigh was of a respectable family in Devonshire, which at the time of his birth was greatly reduced in circumstances. It is among the pleasing facts of his life that he was ever strongly attached to the scenes of his childhood, and endeavoured, in the midst of his ambitious engagements, to purchase the humble residence of his youth. He was at Oxford for a year or two, and leaving it, without obtaining a degree, we next find him in France, where he spent some years with a party of English who went over to assist the Protestants. In 1575, he continued his military course, in the Netherlands, and his passion for a sea-life does not appear till he was about twenty-eight, when he accompanied his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, upon his first unsuccessful voyage to North America. From this time to the death of Elizabeth, a period of about twenty-three years, Raleigh was almost constantly in action and in court favor. It was the golden time of his life, if we are to esteem that such which is crowded with business, animation, public distinction, reverses, triumphs, and in which every power is bent to the utmost for great achievements as a public man in war and peace. Oldys says, that "a warlike reign was of greater safety to him, and a peaceful one proved his destruction." This is a lively comment upon the active, sanguine temper of his hero, and upon the withering, pusillanimous policy of James. Elizabeth could favor the boldest spirits, for she knew how to control them.

As some may have regarded Raleigh chiefly as a man of pleasure, taste, and fashion, a lover of letters and chivalry, and a happy enthusiast and dreamer, we shall, at the risk of being tedious, name some of his places and employments, to give them an idea of what he was as a matter of fact or business man.

And first of his adventures upon the ocean. These were sometimes very successful ones against the enemy for prizes, but they were chiefly for discovery, and for planting colonies, and opening new paths for trade. Several expeditions he merely fitted out or patronized, and it was in this way that his name is connected with the discovery of Davis's Straits, and with the settlement of the American colony to

which the virgin queen was pleased to give a name. He set out twice with Sir Humphrey Gilbert on his voyages to Newfoundland, in 1579 and 1583, and went twice in expeditions of his own to Guiana, in 1595 and 1617. His name is distinguished in naval warfare. He was one of a council of war to prepare against the celebrated Spanish invasion in 1588; and, according to Oldys, when the enemy was on the coast, Raleigh becoming impatient of his command on shore, where his precautions were admirable, joined the English fleet with a gallant company of nobles and gentlemen, and rendered signal service in the discomfiture of the unwieldy Armada. He was with Howard and Essex in the successful expedition against Cadiz in 1596, and commanded the van which was to enter the harbour. In 1597, he was rear admiral under Essex in the Island voyage, and gave offence to that nobleman by getting possession of Fayal, on his own responsibility, in the absence of the commander-in-chief.

Raleigh's expeditions to this country were not planned or conducted at all in the spirit in which New England was visited by the Pilgrims a few years after his death. They were for discovery, and for the acquisition of private fortunes, and to obtain new territories for an easily spared population, and open new fields for national and individual enterprise. They show a great deal of public spirit mingled with merely personal or selfish purposes; and they show further the abundant energy and resources of the adventurers. The government was cautious and frugal, and fully employed at home. The queen would grant a patent to individuals for enterprises, discoveries, and settlements, any where, so long as a Christian or a friendly power was not interfered with, and assume as little responsibility as an officer of the customs in granting a clearance. The adventurers were in general to furnish ships and money, bear the whole risk, enjoy the excitement of danger, discovery, and conquest, get spoil and fame, and bring new possessions to the crown. It was indeed a most encouraging reign to men of fiery spirits who could supply and depend on themselves; and Raleigh's virtues might well be deemed unfashionable and expose him to peril in that of the unwarlike James. The old spirit of chivalry seemed now to be turned to the ocean, and men still went abroad upon adventures, trusting to their own valor.

No one acquainted with Raleigh's career will ascribe his

maritime projects wholly to a selfish principle. They bear marks of a generous and enlightened patriotism. He assisted in every way the efforts of others. He encouraged the artist in drawing maps and plans and sketches ; he aided planters to settle in new countries, marked out tracks for discovery, sought the best spots for trade or plantation, patronized the collector of voyages, published treatises upon ships, commerce, and naval defence, expended immense sums upon the enterprises which he either conducted himself or entrusted to others ; and in his long imprisonment he could not forget the cherished objects of his best days, but he sent to the settlers in Guiana "every year, or every second year, at his own charge, to keep them in hope of being relieved." [Raleigh's Apology, in Birch's Collection. Vol. II. p. 273.]

A few of his offices and honors at home may be named. In 1580, he was captain in the forces under Lord Grey in Ireland, and the narratives of his adventures and services there are very entertaining, though some instances are given of his cruelty as well as of his desperate valor. We find him often in Parliament, and taking an active and highly independent part in many questions affecting the rights of the subject and general improvement. In 1587, he was advanced to the post of captain of the queen's guard, being at the same time lieutenant-general of Cornwall and warden of the stannaries. He was knighted about 1584, and this distinction was no inconsiderable one in Elizabeth's time. Near this period, he received from the queen, besides an immense estate in Ireland, a patent "to license the vending of wines throughout the kingdom, that by the advantages of this he might be better able to sustain the great charges which his enterprises of discovery brought upon him." This patent involved him in an amusing controversy with the University of Cambridge, which had a licensed vintner of its own and imprisoned Raleigh's man. Oldys gives the correspondence between him and the University. [Life, p. 60. Oxf. Ed.]

In 1598 and 1599, he was consulted by government touching the affairs of Ireland, and sent out with a fleet at a time when invasion was apprehended from some quarter. And there appears to have been an intention of sending him to Ireland as Lord Deputy ; but he was averse to the office. In 1600, he went with Lord Cobham to Flanders as commissioner, it is said, to treat with the States concerning peace

between England and the continental powers. The same year he was appointed Governor of Jersey; and here the patronage and reign of Elizabeth were drawing to a close.

Such were some of the offices and engagements of a busy life, connected with most of the important events of the period, and yet always affording time for philosophy, antiquities, and letters. The dates we have ventured to give may be often wrong; for in the several narratives we have consulted, it was frequently easier to get the history of an affair than the time when it occurred; and sometimes, with the month and day before us, we were at a loss for the year. A careful chronology and index would have been of great value in these, as they are in all crowded narratives. It may as well be mentioned here as in another place, that in the volume under review, some references are made in the body of the work to documents in the Appendix, which are not to be found there, that Raleigh is said to have been sixty years old at the time of his death, instead of sixty-six, and, page 66, the first voyage to Guiana is placed *after* the expedition to Cadiz.

The details of Sir Walter's active and public engagements are abundant. It would be gratifying if we had more of his private hours, of his occupations at his Sherborne and other estates, of his beautiful familiar letters, of what passed at the club he instituted at the Mermaid, and in his intercourse with his friends, the Antiquaries. He is represented by our author as "the gayest member of society, the most loquacious, frolicsome, and frequent attendant upon taverns and other places of resort then in vogue." She, as well as Oldys, has given a very pleasant account of his visit to Spenser in 1589, at his seat near the Mulla, which ran through his grounds. Todd says something of this in his life of Spenser; and as if there must always be some doubt in every thing that relates to Raleigh, it is questioned whether this visit to Ireland was voluntary and merely to see his estate there and his valued friend, or whether he retired thither for a time, on account of some disagreement with Essex. It is enough that this visit is an evidence of the intimacy between these illustrious men, and that it is intimately connected with the publication of the *Faery Queen*, a work already begun under the encouragement of Sir Philip Sidney. Spenser, in his beautiful pastoral of "*Colin Clout's come home again*," com-

memorates this meeting, and also Sir Walter's poetical talent, and his services to the poet.

It is painful that our interest in Raleigh should be interrupted by doubts as to his integrity. Few men have stood before the world in such broad light, over whom so much of mystery has been thrown. The charges against him may have come from his enemies, and they may be vague; still, in the fear that all is not right, we are put upon our ingenuity to see if we cannot clear his reputation. If a full life of him had been written by one decided, plain-spoken foe, we might have the accusations and their grounds distinctly before us; and if they could not be repelled, we should know at least what allowance to make for the man, and what deductions from the too partial estimate we had formed of him. In the volume before us, his avarice and corruption are spoken of in this rather indefinite way.

"In a letter which he wrote to the king, Raleigh acknowledged, before his trial, as he had also done to Cecil and the lords who were appointed to examine him, the only offence which could justly be laid to his charge, that of listening to the proposals made by Cobham of a bribe from Spain, although he declared that he neither believed nor approved it. It is indeed to be feared, that there was some deviation from the rules of strict integrity, induced too, probably, by the temptation of turning his abilities and influence to account; for a strange contradiction existed in the character of Raleigh, who, while he freely promoted, at his own expense, the schemes which he projected for the extension of British dominion, was clear neither from the imputation of receiving bribes from his own countrymen, nor from the disposition to admit them from foreign states. Avarice, unguarded by a nice and delicate sense of honor, was the prevailing vice of the day, and few statesmen were, in those times, exempt from stains upon their purity of conduct, which would at present consign persons in similar stations to merited and irremediable disgrace." p. 173.

His veracity has been assailed for the eloquent fables he published about the gold of Guiana, in his "*Voyage of Discovery*" to that country. Our author is not content with saying, that Raleigh tells what is not true, but charges him with the *intention* of taking in adventurers by his splendid fictions. The patient and admiring Oldys gives a long abstract of the work, and passages from an heroic poem upon the subject written, as he supposes, by George Chapman, and

adds the favorable opinion of Camden and others. Raleigh, it seems, tells much truth about the country, and so much the worse, say his enemies, when he misrepresents, as he must have known better. Might it not be more charitable to suppose that he described sometimes from report? His friends think that the book bears plain marks of good faith and sincerity, and some, that it shows too much of imagination and credulity, and that his interest probably tempted him to exaggerate and color. And yet he was himself so set upon grasping the visionary gold, that we find him fitting out vessels again and again to his darling Guiana; and twenty years afterwards, upon his return from his last and ill-starred expedition thither, he says, in his "Apology,"

"A strange fancy had it been in me to have persuaded my son whom I have lost, and to have persuaded my wife, to have adventured the eight thousand pound which his Majesty gave them for Sherborne, and when that was spent, to persuade my wife to sell her house at Mitcham, in hope of enriching them by the mines of Guiana; if I myself had not seen them with my own eyes. For being old and weakly, thirteen years in prison, and not used to the air, to travel, and to watching, it being ten to one that I should ever have returned, and of which by reason of my violent sickness and the long continuance thereof, no man had any hope; what madness could have made me undertake this journey but the assurance of the mine?" *Birch's Collection*. Vol. II. p. 270.

Of the charge against him of atheism, skepticism, and deism, we can make nothing. Whether in his early days he was a free-thinker, or that his philosophical opinions were in advance of the times, or that he was thought too bold in applying criticism to parts of the Old Testament, or whether his kindness and toleration towards dissenters offended the prelacy, or his abhorrence of Spain, the Jesuits, — the charge was certainly made, and that is all that we can say of it.

Lastly comes the charge of treason, for which, so far as respects form, he suffered death. Hume says of this affair, that "every thing still remains mysterious, and history can give us no clue to unravel it;" and so it remains now. He had incurred enmity about the tragical affair of Essex; he had become unpopular; the queen was dead; Cecil, a former friend and a wily politician, was jealous of him. James, who had just come to the throne, had heard ill of him, and prob-



ably dreaded him as a rival in learning, as well as a mighty man in politics and war. Strangely enough, he had long been an intimate of the worthless Lord Cobham; and at first from suspicion, and then from Cobham's confessions, subsequently retracted, Raleigh, in 1603, was charged with having taken part in a conspiracy with that lord, and Lord Grey and others, against the king. Then we have the trial, and Coke's brutality, and a verdict against him in plain defiance of all justice. A more atrocious proceeding may not be found under governments which openly place the will of the ruler above statutes and forms. To have any just idea of what we have merely hinted at, the whole history of this business must be read.

No warrant for execution issuing against Raleigh, we are now to follow him to his dungeon. We spoke before of his most active days as perhaps the golden time of his life. Some, who contemplate life differently, may think him a far more interesting being during his thirteen years' residence in the tower, under sentence of death, his estates forfeited, his magnificent plans of wealth, discovery, and usefulness crushed, while his heart still yearned over them; the rashness and severity which he had shown in his earlier days, tempered or quite subdued; his wife and children the companions of his captivity, and the young Prince Henry his devoted friend, and the worthy object of his affection and instruction. Here, we are told in the language of the times, "the door of his chamber being always open all the day long to the garden, he hath converted a little hen-house in the garden to a still-house, where he doth spend his time all the day in distillations;" probably compounding his "great cordial." Here, says Oldys, "we are arrived at that part of his story, wherein he will appear rather as a collegian than a captive, a student in a library than a prisoner in the tower," mustering all his powers and learning to compose his great work, the "History of the World." One might dwell long and profitably upon such an example of self-command, and steady devotion of his faculties to a great and useful object, under circumstances that seem just fitted to break down such an ardent, sanguine temper. It was probably a harder task for him to compose grave political treatises and elaborate history in his cell, than for Bunyan to follow out in jail the spiritual visions that had long filled his mind before his cap-

tivity. It is not for any one to measure the uses of trial, of disappointment in the most cherished schemes and of the most brilliant hopes. Raleigh's character wanted mellowing and ripening even at fifty, and certainly it gives evidence afterwards of a moral force and true piety and steady mental vigor, of domestic tenderness and a love of what is thoroughly pacific, that might have been wanting but for the desertion of the world, the hatred of rivals, and the silent hours of bondage.

It may be alleged against Raleigh, that in the Preface to his "History" and elsewhere, he shows towards James a degrading condescension and flattery. Without excusing this humiliation, we ought to remember that it was an age of exorbitant reverence for thrones and legitimacy; and the grossest adulation was esteemed but a moderate tribute to a monarch, who, according to Blackstone, united in his person not only all the claims of different competitors from the conquest downwards, but also the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had been suspended from the conquest till his accession. If in these days and in our own country we set little by such considerations, we may find a slight palliation for Raleigh's undeserved eulogy of his sovereign, that it was offered when he was in the tower and under sentence of death, and perhaps in the hope of obtaining from the king's weakness what he might in vain demand from his sense of justice.

He was released from prison in 1616, while still under sentence of death, and went upon another voyage to Guiana in 1617, with a royal commission as admiral, which Bacon, then Lord Keeper, solemnly assured him, in order to remove his doubts and fears, was a sufficient pardon. The expedition was disastrous, the Spanish government was incensed at it, and James was alarmed; and upon Raleigh's return in 1618, he was again committed to the tower, and in two or three months after suffered death under the old sentence of 1603, which seems to have been kept in reserve for him, if he should ever give offence. He was probably a victim to his own infatuation, and to the ascendancy of Spain in the councils of England; and the atrocity of his condemnation is only equalled by that of his execution. We have no room for the particulars of this impressive and well-remembered scene. A short passage from his letter to his wife just after sentence was passed, and the night before he expected to be put to death, may be a fitting close.

"You shall now receive, my dear wife, my last words in these my last lines. My love I send you, that you may keep it when I am dead, and my counsel; that you may remember it when I am no more. I would not, by my will, present you with sorrows, dear Bess; let them go into the grave with me, and be buried in the dust. And seeing that it is not the will of God that ever I shall see you more in this life, bear it patiently and with a heart like myself. Remember your poor child for his father's sake, who chose you and loved you in his happiest time. Get those letters, if it be possible, which I writ to the lords, wherein I sued for my life. God is my witness, it was for you and yours that I desired life. But it is true that I disdain myself for begging it; for know it, dear wife, that your son is the son of a true man, and one who in his own respect despiseth death, and all his misshapen and ugly forms. I cannot write much: God he knoweth how hardly I steal this time, while others sleep; and it is also high time that I should separate my thoughts from the world. Beg my dead body which living was denied thee; and either lay it at Sherborne, if the land continue, or in Exeter church by my father and mother." *Birch's Collection of Raleigh's Miscellanies*, Vol. II. pp. 383–385.

As these few details and remarks have occupied so much space, it would be hardly worth while to venture upon an account, that must be very imperfect, of his writings, which are of almost every kind, and especially of his great work, "that ocean of history," as it has been called, the *History of the World*, beginning with the creation and closing with the conquest of Macedonia by Paulus Æmilius, and treating of things both new and old. Such is Raleigh's literary importance, that a complete view of his writings should be given, or none attempted.

His life by Oldys, in 1736, is full of curious and entertaining matter, and evidently written by one devoted to his hero; and as it is published, together with Birch's short and excellent narrative (1751) in the recent Oxford edition of Raleigh's works, we suppose it is still in good repute. Mrs. Thomson's work appeared in 1830. Though not always exact, it is an entertaining compilation from a great variety of authors. It is written in a very fair spirit, and with a due regard to moral and religious considerations in settling the character of a distinguished public man. Such a life could hardly be written heavily by any one; and in the hands of Southey,

Irving, or Scott, it would, we think, make as enchanting and instructive a work, as any that has come from their pens.

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ART. VI. — *Life of Emanuel Swedenborg, with some Account of his Writings, together with a Brief Notice of the Rise and Progress of the New Church.* Boston. Allen & Goddard. 1831. 12mo. pp. 188.

THIS is a very well arranged account of the life and religion of the most remarkable pretender in the Christian church, written by a friend of his cause and for the purpose of promoting a belief in his supernatural pretensions ; and therefore partaking of the character of an eulogy. But while it is adapted to delight and edify the receivers of his faith, it will be found highly entertaining by all ; and perhaps those who would see in small compass a statement of the grounds on which his claims are rested, will find nowhere a more complete exposition than is here given. In the present universal agitation of the religious public and action and reaction of sects, it is not strange that this sect of enthusiasts, the most amiable perhaps which the history of enthusiasm has known, should share in the general excitement, and be anxious, notwithstanding its professed anti-proselyting spirit, to draw to itself a fair proportion of the minds which are inquiring after the actual truth. It would not be at all surprising if its success should be considerable. Many things take place daily far more astonishing than conversions to Swedenborgianism ; and where a sect can at once exhibit an exemplary sweetness of deportment, offer gratification to the general love of the mystical and supernatural, and set forth the life of its prophet in so winning a form as that which is here displayed, it must be acknowledged to possess not the weakest means of securing admirers and followers. If it be true, that the Roman Catholic Church is daily adding to its members from the population of the United States, we certainly are not to wonder if the equally rational and more attractive doctrine of the New Church collect its adherents too.

We have called Swedenborg the most remarkable heresiarch of the Christian Church ; and so he undoubtedly will be regarded by all who are acquainted with the particulars of his history. His origin, his connexions, his progress, are wholly

unlike those of other men who have built up divisions in the Church. He did not spring from obscurity, and assume a religious character as the only means of obtaining distinction; he was already distinguished, and extensively honored, when he commenced the character of a prophet. He was noble by birth, and by education and habit the companion of noblemen and princes. His natural talents were of a high order, and, being cultivated by diligent study, had raised him to an elevated place among the philosophers and men of science in his day. It was while thus situated, that his mind became affected with his visionary schemes, and that he turned from the realms of science to build up a new kingdom of religion. It is impossible not to be struck with the simplicity and modesty, if we may so say, with which he stated and urged his pretensions. So great is the *naïveté* with which he brings forward the most amazing propositions and relates his supernatural adventures, he wears his divine character so unconsciously and naturally, that nothing is left for us but to feel that he is thoroughly sincere and in earnest. The idea of imposture never suggests itself to the mind. But we look at him with the same feeling with which we regard those unhappy persons who, with precisely similar simplicity and self-conviction, talk to us in the lunatic apartments of their schemes and discoveries, and calmly adduce them as proofs that they are in sound mind. We have known many persons laboring under some species of mental delusion, whose whole deportment and conversation on all topics but one were rational and exemplary; and whose quiet sincerity on that one might easily persuade the stranger of the reality of what they asserted. "But any one of his visions," as Wesley says in his characteristic way, "puts his real character out of doubt. He is one of the most ingenious, lively, entertaining madmen that ever set pen to paper. But his waking dreams are so wild, so far remote both from Scripture and common sense, that one might as easily swallow the stories of Tom Thumb or Jack the Giant-Killer."

Swedenborg was born in Sweden in 1688, and, after a life of eighty-four years, died at London in 1772. He was of a thoughtful, religious turn from his earliest childhood, and even then uttered such wonderful things, that his parents declared the angels sometimes spoke through his mouth. As he advanced in life, he retained his love of spiritual

speculations, and seems freely to have indulged them ; but at the same time avoided that course of religious study which is commonly thought requisite to a right understanding of the Scriptures.

“ I was prohibited reading dogmatic and systematic theology, before heaven was opened to me, by reason that unfounded opinions and inventions might thereby easily have insinuated themselves, which with difficulty could afterwards have been extirpated ; wherefore, when heaven was opened to me, it was necessary first to learn the Hebrew language ; as well as the correspondences of which the whole Bible is composed, which lead me to read the word of God over many times ; and inasmuch as the Word of God is the source whence all theology must be derived, I was thereby enabled to receive instruction from the Lord, who is the Word.” p. 9.

That is to say, being happily ignorant of that knowledge which is required for the right interpretation of the Bible, he had nothing to prevent his adopting what principles of interpretation he pleased.

In the mean time, however, he pursued with great success the study of science and natural philosophy ; spent several years in travelling ; and in 1716 was appointed by Charles the Twelfth assessor of the mines. He was always favored by that monarch, who was a lover of mathematics, and who devised an ingenious scheme for a new arithmetic, founded on a series of sixty-fours instead of tens, of which a particular account is given in the Appendix to the present work. The philosophical works published by Swedenborg were numerous and voluminous, and upon very various subjects ; and are said to contain certain important discoveries which have since been attributed to other persons. One of these, in anatomy, was the anticipation of a discovery respecting the brain, by which Dr. Monro of Edinburgh was afterward rendered famous. They contain also many experiments and observations on magnetism, which are commonly esteemed to be of much more modern date, and are unjustly ascribed, says Dr. Patterson, to much more recent writers. It is a singular fact, that in discoursing of the magnetic needle, he was drawn into a train of reasoning, apparently fanciful, which yet led him to declare the existence of a seventh planet, forty years before it was discovered by Herschel. The various works alluded to occupied the time of our phi-

losopher between the years 1616 and 1743, and deservedly gained him a high name in the world of philosophy. During the whole of this period, however, he seems to have been feeling out his way into a higher region of thought and knowledge, and to have considered all which he was doing as simply introductory to the more exalted science of fuller light which he was eagerly sketching. The desired point he reached in the year last named, which is the date of his "illumination," as it is styled; an illumination, the character of which, we are told in the present work, cannot be fully understood in the present state of the church.

We are disappointed in not finding in this volume, an account of the circumstances and manner in which this great event occurred. The writer simply refers to a history of the affair, heretofore given, as one which cannot be trusted, stating that "there is a *general impression* among the receivers of the doctrines of the New Church, that the narrative is in itself improbable, and that although it may be in some respects true, it is nevertheless in its detail incorrectly stated." It is very vague and unsatisfactory to reply to the statement of a fact by a "general impression." But although the event itself is left so much in the dark, its consequences are not concealed. Swedenborg thenceforth gave up his scientific pursuits, and devoted himself exclusively to his new spiritual calling. He read little, keeping no books by him but a Hebrew and Greek Bible, and wrote much;—his religious works amount to twenty-seven octavo volumes. He became a companion of angels and departed spirits, conversing with them at his pleasure, and proving to others that he enjoyed this intercourse by carrying messages backward and forward between the inhabitants of this and the unseen world. Many anecdotes on this subject are related in the volume before us, accompanied with the assurance that neither the prophet nor his followers lay any stress on the evidence they afford in favor of his system. Indeed pains are taken to explain, that a true system of faith can neither need, nor be benefited by, external testimony; and a sort of eulogy is passed on Swedenborg for slighting it, which is liable to be construed into an implied censure of Jesus Christ for resting his claims upon it. We suppose, therefore, that all which the writer intends to say, is, that, to the "receivers" of the doctrine, the internal evidence is all-sufficient; yet, if the

doctrine is to gain a hearing from unbelievers, it must be on the ground of external evidence. Otherwise we do not understand the object of filling so many pages with such matter as the following.

"Mr. Springer, the Swedish consul, resident at London, a gentleman of the utmost veracity, makes the following statement :

"All that he (Swedenborg) has related to me respecting my deceased acquaintances, both friends and enemies, and the secrets that were between us, almost surpasses belief. He explained to me in what manner the peace was concluded between Sweden and the king of Prussia; and he praised my conduct on that occasion: he even told me who were the three great personages of whom I made use in that affair; which, nevertheless, was an entire secret between them and me." p. 74.

"Mr. Hart, the father, died in London, while Swedenborg was abroad; who, on his return, went to Mr. Hart's house. After being let in at the street-door, he was told that his old friend was dead: to which he instantly replied, 'I know that very well; for I saw him in the spiritual world while I was in Holland, at such a time [near the time of his death or soon after]; also, whilst coming over in the packet to England. He is not now in heaven,' he continued, 'but is coming round, and in a good way to do well.'" p. 75.

"I asked him [Swedenborg] whether he had seen the lately deceased king Frederick the Fifth, adding, that although some human frailty or other might be attributed to him, yet I had certain hopes that he was happy. His answer was, 'Yes, I have seen him, and I know that he is not only very well off, but all the kings of the house of Oldenburg, who are all associated together. This is not the happy case with our Swedish kings, some of whom are not so well off.' This he said in the presence of the consul, and the Swedish captain with whom he sailed. He added further: 'In the world of spirits I have not seen any one so splendidly served and waited on, as the deceased empress Elizabeth of Russia.'" p. 98.

"I took the liberty of saying to him, since in his writings he always declared, that at all times there were good and evil spirits of the other world present with every man, 'May I then make bold to ask, whether, while my wife and daughter were singing, there have been any from the other world present with us?' To this he answered, 'Yes, certainly;' and on my inquiring who they were, and whether I had known them, he said, that it was the Danish royal family, and he mentioned



Charles the Sixth, Sophia Magdalena, and Frederick the Fifth, who through his eyes and ears had seen and heard it." p. 101.

The last two extracts exemplify what we have already said of the simplicity with which he spoke of his supernatural gifts; of which a still more amusing instance is recorded in his story of the angel who persuaded him to falsify the date of his birth.

Dr. Hartley relates it thus. Swedenborg said to him,

" 'I was born at Stockholm, 1689.' Here he told me he was not born in that year, as mentioned, but in the preceding. And on my asking him whether this was a fault in the printing, he answered, 'No; but the reason was this,' says he; 'you may remember in reading my writings, to have seen it mentioned in many places, that every cypher or number in the spiritual sense has a certain correspondence or signification annexed: ' and added, that when he had first put the true year in that letter, an angel present told him that he should write the year now printed, as much more suitable to himself than the other, 'And you know,' said the angel, 'that with us time or space are nothing; ' 'for this reason it was,' continued he, 'that I wrote it.' " p. 101.

Besides the life and character of this singular man, the present volume gives the titles and object of the several works which he published, and notices of his religious opinions. We cannot give an abstract of these, which are already as brief as they can easily be made. Those who feel disposed in a pleasant way to get a glimpse at this extraordinary system, cannot do better than to possess themselves of the book.

The "Supplement" contains a brief sketch of the progress of this sect and its present condition in Europe and America. We learn that there are twenty-eight societies in the United States, sixteen ministers and fifteen licentiates. There have been six periodical publications devoted to the cause, all of which continued in existence but a short time, except the most recent, printed in Boston, which is now in the course of its fourth year. If we may judge from the increased number of books printed, some of which are stereotyped, we should suppose that there is a great increase of zeal in the denomination, and something of a nascent spirit of proselytism.

- ART. VII. — 1. *Lectures on Witchcraft, comprising a History of the Delusion in Salem in 1692.* By CHARLES W. UPHAM, Junior Pastor of the First Church in Salem. Second Edition. Carter & Hendee. 1831. 24mo. pp. 280.
2. *An Essay on Demonology, Ghosts, and Apparitions, and Popular Superstitions; also an Account of the Witchcraft Delusion at Salem in 1692.* By JAMES THACHER, M. D., A. A. S. Boston. Carter & Hendee. 1831. 24mo. pp. 234.

THE whole tribe of ghosts, goblins, and witches has been rapidly disappearing during the last century, before the daylight of modern science and philosophy. In our own country the general diffusion of knowledge is driving them out from every corner of the land. What a dull, matter-of-fact world this will be by and by! It is true, that you hear now and then a good old-fashioned story of a haunted house; and meet with some traditional superstitions, yet lingering in the minds of the more ignorant. But we have hardly enough left to rhyme or to reason about; and even these few, which remain, are likely in the present course of things to die away ere long and to be forgotten. The schoolmaster and the lecturer are carrying on against them a quiet, but powerful exorcism.

The history, however, of these superstitions, thus passed or passing away, is a subject of general interest. While it opens a wide field for the researches of the antiquary, and the inquiries of the philosopher, it is full of entertaining and marvellous incidents, which captivate all minds. It therefore furnishes good topics for the popular lectures of a lyceum, in which it is desirable to combine entertainment with instruction. With this view the two publications which stand at the head of this article were originally written; and they are among the many good fruits which have already been produced by the establishment of lyceums. We are glad that their authors have been induced to give them a wider circulation.

Mr. Upham's "Lectures on Witchcraft" contain a very interesting and instructive account of one of the most remarkable transactions in the annals of modern superstition; and one

too upon which the community at large have but superficial information. Mr. Upham remarks very justly, that "all have heard of the Salem witchcraft,—hardly any are aware of the real character of that event. Its mention creates a smile of astonishment and perhaps a sneer of contempt, or it may be, a thrill of horror for the innocent who suffered; but there is reason to fear that it fails to suggest those reflections and impart that salutary instruction, without which the design of Providence in permitting it to take place cannot be accomplished. There are indeed few passages in the history of any people to be compared with it in all that constitutes the pitiable and tragical, the mysterious and awful. The student of human nature will contemplate in its scenes one of the most remarkable developments which that nature ever assumed; while the moralist, the statesman, and the Christian philosopher will severally find that it opens before them a field fruitful in instruction."

It is the object of Mr. Upham's work to set this transaction in its proper light, and to draw from it useful lessons. In his First Lecture he gives an historical narrative of the proceedings in Salem; the best single account which we have seen of all the circumstances of a delusion, which rose and swept all before it, and then passed off with the violence and suddenness of a whirlwind. Whether it began in malice, or sport, or a deceived imagination, it led to a scene of distress which is without a parallel in the history of our country. The dark and odious features of the transaction are relieved, however, by instances of magnanimous feeling and conduct in some of the unfortunate sufferers, and by the affecting penitence of the community after the delusion had passed away. The narrative closes delightfully with the humble and truly Christian confession of Judge Sewall, who would not meanly palter with his conscience, when he became convinced of his error.

In his Second Lecture the author presents those facts and considerations which are to be taken into view in judging of the conduct of our ancestors;—the history and state of opinions respecting supposed compacts with supernatural beings,—the law of the land respecting witchcraft,—the condition of science, philosophy, and theology, at the time,—and the general principles of human nature and human society. He ends with gathering the useful inferences and

lessons, which are to be derived from the whole subject. His work cannot fail to be useful and interesting to all classes of readers.

Dr. Thacher's work contains a good deal of entertaining matter. The greater part of it is occupied with an account of the Salem witchcraft, in which we do not perceive that he has added any thing of great importance to what is given in the preceding work. The chapters on Illusion and the Power of Imagination, contain some interesting illustrations of these subjects. The author has collected a goodly number of authentic stories, new and old, of ghosts and apparitions, and of their annunciations to the living, of events which sometimes did and sometimes did not occur, in conformity with their declarations. These supposed supernatural appearances and audible communications he attempts to explain by the operations of physical causes in regard to those who are thus fearfully visited. In some cases the explanations appear very satisfactory, and they are usually ingenious and philosophical.

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ART. VIII. — *Knowledge for the People, or the plain Why and Because.* By JOHN TIMBS, Editor of "Laconics," "Arcana of Science and Art," &c. Parts I, II, and III. Boston. Lilly & Wait. 12mo.

EACH of these Parts, consisting of seventy-two pages of closely printed "Whys," as questions, and "Beauses," as answers, is devoted to some particular subject. Part I, is on Domestic Science; Part II, on Quadrupeds; Part III, Origins and Antiquities.

Of all the off-hand treatises for the people, we know of none less worthy their confidence and support than that of which the title stands at the head of this article. Why? Because almost every page of the author is a monument to his ignorance, and his quotations from others are in language, which, if the people understand it, contains information adapted neither to their taste nor their wants.

We have lived, some of us, a dozen years among the chips and shavings, scales, filings, and turnings, dust and gudgeon-grease, gas and vapor, bark and hides, lye and ashes of our mechanics, bleachers, chemists, tanners, soap-boilers, and other classes of our working-men and working-women, and

we know that their practical good sense will never allow them to consider quotations from purely scientific writers, like Cuvier and Blumenbach, as the proper medium for their instruction.

The interest of "the people," for whom this work is especially written, is not in the origin of an art, but in its practical applications. Their success depends too much on their industry and skill to allow them time to inquire into the antiquity of their customs.

The taste of our people is for things, not names; for knowledge of a common and substantial order, not that suited to the taste of antiquaries and surface-skimmers. But our serious objection to this book, lies not only in its want of adaptation to the taste, necessities, and capacity of the people, but in its puerilities, and numerous errors both of fact and philosophy. Let us adduce some examples.

*"Why does sunshine extinguish fire?"*

"Because the rays engage the oxygen, which had hitherto supported the fire." Part I. p. 4.

It is a miracle that any of us can live in sunshine, such a powerful deoxydating agent! We even begin to doubt the truth of the story of the eagle's turning her young one's eyes to the sun, and of the old bird herself flying right in the face and eyes of that luminary, just as the author here does in the teeth of truth. Allowing that the sunshine does extinguish fire, we cannot attribute this to the cause above stated; for we cannot believe that the rays of the sun, diffused, can extinguish, when, concentrated, they kindle fire.

We do not deny the chemical effects of the sun's rays, nor that they reduce some metallic oxydes; but that our atmosphere can be decomposed by bright sunshine, is one of the "arcana of science" which Mr. Timbs must have the sole merit of revealing.

If this be a fact, which Heaven forbid, it certainly affords us a most ready and inexhaustible source of nitrogen. We have only to expose a bottle of common air to the sun in order to collect nitrogen perfectly pure; for what little of carbon there may be floating in air, combined with oxygen, will probably descend in a shower of soot, the sun's rays decomposing the carbonic acid. Luckily, we have invented stoves, which thus screen the fire from the sun's action. But we must not heat our stove too hot.

*"Why is the extreme heat of stoves for heating rooms, pernicious to health?"*

"Because if the temperature be thus raised much higher than 300° Fahrenheit, the animal and vegetable matter, which is found at all times mechanically mixed with the air, will be decomposed, and certain vapors and fluids produced of a deleterious quality and peculiar smell. The matter here alluded to is very visible to a naked eye in a sun-beam let into a dark room." Part I. pp. 6, 7.

This is the old story of atmospheric dust which some philosophers declare to exist and to be deposited in such quantities, that the earth's diameter, on their calculations, ought to have increased at least twenty-seven feet since the birth of our Saviour. It certainly ought to be present in the above ratio in our parlors, to produce such effects by its combustion, as this plain "Because" teaches us to expect. We wonder our author did not think of deoxydating the air by the heated iron of the stove, — a much simpler answer to his "Why."

*"Why is salt beef reddened by boiling in hard water?"*

"Because of the additional salt which renders the water harder." Part I. p. 18.

Truly if we are to wait for a slice, till we can understand this reason, we shall die of starvation. Nor are our fears on this head at all relieved by the bread which the next section offers us.

*"Why does stiff dough of flour and water, soon turn sour?"*

"Because the water undergoes the acetous fermentation, and becomes vinegar." Part I. p. 18.

We have no doubt, that this unheard of fermentation of simple water is at the bottom of that grand secret of vinegar-making, for which the Salem Lead Company is said to have paid no less than five thousand dollars. It is out now, thanks to Mr. Timbs; and our ships' crews need not fear scurvy, if vinegar can prevent it. We sincerely sympathize with the odd ends of cider-mugs; — their chance of being again served up as vinegar is sadly lessened in these days of refined discoveries.

From the bake-house we are next introduced to the brewery; all the secrets of the trade are revealed. We hope our brewers will learn now, how to correct the vile fermentation of water, without the addition of deleterious articles.

*"Why is Muscovia glass used by brewers in fining and correcting stale beer?"*

"Because it is a mineral product containing magnesia, and affording, by boiling, a considerable portion of *gelatine*! The magnesia neutralizes or destroys a portion of the acetous acid in the stale beer, and the *gelatine* carries down with it all the suspended impurities. A pound is said to go as far in fining beer as two pounds of isinglass." Part I. p. 24.

Now the *rationale* of the operation is very good; but who ever before heard of mineral *gelatine*? Lands flowing with milk and honey, and out of whose hills we "may dig brass," we know are common enough; but here we have the addition of calf's-foot jelly; so that with our salt-mountains, and hills of rich jelly, we may bid defiance to famine. The truth is, Mr. Timbs knows nothing about these matters. He mistakes the mineral called mica, or isinglass, or Muscovy glass, for that animal product called glue, or *gelatine*, or isinglass, and which has always been supposed to be peculiar to the animal kingdom. The mineral isinglass is perfectly insoluble in water, contains not a trace of *gelatine*, and its addition to beer therefore is worse than useless. The whole account is so perfectly ridiculous, that we began to think that the types themselves had committed this egregious blunder, till we came to this question.

*"Why does carbonate of soda restore sour and flat beer?"*

"Because carbonic acid is thus introduced." Part I. p. 24.

This is perfect mystery. Indeed what little notions we had on the subjects of neutralization and fermentation are wholly upset by plain "Why and Because." We profess not to understand how vinegar added to malt can "inoculate wort made from it, with the acetous fermentation." Mr. Timbs seems to be very partial to carbonic acid. He even allows that the effect of pearl-ash in softening green pease and beans, depends on the "carbonic acid, seizing upon the lime in the gypsum, and thus freeing the vegetables from its influence."

It would be insulting the understanding of our readers to tell them that no such action of the carbonic acid can take place. If it did, it would only substitute carbonate for sulphate of lime; or, in other words, Mr. Timbs says that it is easier to chew marble than alabaster. These are a few only of the numerous mistakes which meet our eye on every page. We

have not been particular in our selections. If we were to point out one more glaring than others, it would be this.

*"Why does potash, dissolving in spirits of wine, prove it to be adulterated?"*

"Because so strong is the attraction of the basis of potash for oxygen, that it thus discovers and decomposes the smallest quantity of water in the spirit." Part I. p. 42, 43.

The action of potassium on water is here confounded with that of the subcarbonate of potash in concentrating alcohol. If the word *potash* in the question had been potassium, the answer would still have been absurd, because the purest alcohol contains water in its elements, which the potassium would decompose. Hence the test is useless. But who who ever heard that potassium, as such, exists in potash? Its reduction to the metallic state marks one of the most splendid epochs of chemistry, and therefore this mistake is tenfold more unpardonable than any other.

We can only glance at the other numbers of the work. That on Quadrupeds has some sound and rational answers to very interesting questions; and others which are no answers at all, or very absurd ones.

Some of the "Whys and Because," in this Part, are little else than identical propositions, changing from an interrogative to an affirmative form; as, to the question "Why is the dog attached to man?" the answer amounts to nothing more in substance than, — because he is naturally attached to man. (Part II. p. 19.)

*"Why are digestion, circulation, and respiration called ORGANS of involuntary motion?"* Part II. p. 10.

"Because" — but the answer would be well enough if it belonged to the question; the mistake is in calling the *functions* performed by organs, the organs themselves.

It is a proverbial saying, that a dog's nose is always cold. But Mr. Timbs tells us of the cat, that "its nose is always cold, except on the day of the summer solstice, and then it becomes lukewarm."

*"Why is the deer as strong as he is fleet?"*

"Because of the peculiar hardness of the bone of his foot." Part II. p. 38.

Alas, for our ossified understandings!

Of the horse, we are informed, that when brought to the



stable-door, he *expands* the pupil of his eye to *keep out* the extra light, which would be injurious to vision. (Part II. p. 44.)

We respectfully suggest to the publishers of this work, whether the word *expend* had not better be changed to *contract*, in their second edition; it is probably an oversight in this. We cannot believe that any man with eyes to see, would open them to shut out the light. It is quite unnatural, to say the least.

The account of "Origins and Antiquities" is amusing; but after the sample we have given of Mr. Timbs's correctness, we have very little faith in the accuracy of his researches. We have room only for one specimen from this part.

"*Why are buns so called?*"

"Because of the origin of the term from a species of sacred bread, which used to be offered to the gods, and was called Boun. The Greeks, who changed the *nu* final into a *sigma*, expressed it in the nominative, Bous, but in the accusative more truly *Bouv*, *Boun*. Heyschius [Hesychius] speaks of this Boun, and describes it as a kind of cake, with a representation of two horns. Julius Pollux mentions it after the same manner as a sort of cake with horns. Diogenes Laërtius, &c." Part. III. p. 15.

Be it remembered that this is knowledge for the people. We presume that it is meant for the *rising* generation. It is beyond and above the comprehension of those, whose earliest recollections of Hot Cross Buns are associated with Mother Goose. We should lament to learn that "One a penny, two a penny," is no longer sung; and therefore we hope that no nursing mother of our infant schools will reduce the "plain Why and Because" of Buns to rhyme. Such profound knowledge must be taught by some severer process.

ART. IX. — *The Bravo; a Tale*. By the Author of "The Spy," "The Red Rover," "The Water-Witch," &c. 2 vols. 12mo. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea. 1831.

MR. COOPER has managed with unrivalled success the various scenes of the ocean, and the characters and manners of the wayfarers of the great deep; with almost equal skill has he depicted some of the incidents of our frontier settlements and the likenesses of their adventurous inhabitants. To the natives of these regions his pencil has also lent its

glowing colors ; and though an ardent imagination and a recoiling from the harsh portraiture of other days and unkindly hands have, to our view, led him too far, and made him give to them more than justice could possibly require, and than truth can admit, yet the painting shows in its execution much of the skill of a master ; and though not to be relied on as a true likeness, is yet perhaps equally to be prized as a work of art.

These subjects however were becoming too familiar in his hands, and he has now presented to us scenes and characters widely different from any to be found in our happy country. In his selection however of a subject for the employment of his pen, he seems to have been guided by a higher motive, than the mere advantage to be derived from a change of place and persons ; and even, from this motive, to have made that change less conducive to his own reputation, as a skilful and successful writer of fiction, than it might otherwise have been rendered. This motive was, to present a contrast to the truly republican institutions of our country in one of the self-styled republics of the old world ; and by unfolding, through the incidents of his narrative, the character and policy of the government of Venice, to show how ill-founded were her pretensions to the title, and how widely different the principles that ruled and decided her fate ; so that she may no more be mentioned as an illustration of the consequences and effects of that kind of government, nor have the records of her destiny idly and maliciously employed to divine or predict the occurrences or fate of our own.

We think that he has succeeded in the attainment of this object, and has given us an insight into the heartless and tortuous policy of that once renowned state, strikingly at variance with the open and liberal polity of our own republic. The distinguishing points between the features of Venetian aristocracy or oligarchy (for we are in doubt which title would most properly be bestowed upon that government), and those of institutions purely republican, are briefly and cursorily touched upon in various places, and with considerable discrimination and force of remark ; we doubt, however, whether these passages will serve greatly to increase the favor of the work in the eyes of the generality of readers, who take up a book of this description for amusement and excitement merely, and not for instruction ; and who are extremely apt

to fancy every thing conducive only to the latter an imperfection in the work, a hindrance or a drawback to the progress or amount of their gratification.

With all this, however, the title of the work has little to do, and we look upon it as a grievous misnomer. "The City of St. Mark," or something of similar import, would, in our view of the subject, have been far more appropriate than "The Bravo." It is true, that one of the conspicuous personages of the tale, and the one whose fate forms its conclusion, is by common repute a distinguished member of that unholy fraternity, little known out of the cities of Italy, where the violence of passion, and the mingled impotence, inequality, and subservient yielding of the laws to the great and powerful, often occasion acts of private revenge for injuries. Yet the person in question enjoys his evil reputation very undeservedly, being in reality but a secret agent of the police, a tool of the cruel, mysterious, despotic, and irresponsible Counsel of Three; ensnared in their toils by his devotion to his father; who was secretly and unjustly detained in the prisons of the state for a crime of which his innocence had been proved, and to obtain whose liberation the son consented to become the minister of their secret will, and for the furtherance of their designs, to be esteemed a bravo. This is all well enough for the real purposes of the tale; but to those readers (and they are very many), in whose minds the name of bravo is linked with a thousand fearful tales, and more fearful imaginations, of foul, daring, and secret murder, of deadly cunning and diabolical revenge, it will seem pitifully tame and uninteresting. They will greatly miss the pleasurable excitement, after reading it, of not being able to pass a dark corner or a lonely and shaded portico without looking back and starting at the fancied swift and silent approach of a muffled figure with the half unsheathed dagger gleaming in his hand. So far from making victims of others, this supposed murderous hero is but the victim of his own ill fame, and the unfeeling and unprincipled policy of those he served, by whom he is made to perish on the block, as the murderer of a man secretly put to death by the police. The death of this man had caused an alarming popular commotion, and the Bravo was accused of having committed the murder. To appease the popular fury, his death was determined on, with the less reluctance perhaps on the part of his masters, that

he had, in one or two instances, just before, suffered the better feelings of his nature to prevail in opposition to the known wishes of the senate, and to the thwarting of their views in other matters. Feeling, conscience, and humanity were things too dangerous to be tolerated by the councils of St. Mark.

In the earlier part of the work, the Bravo, or more properly speaking, Jacopo Frontoni, appears but casually, and rather as an object of wonder and detestation to the other characters, than as having any prominent share in the tale, if we except that which he bore in the regatta or rowing match. Towards the middle of the second volume Jacopo becomes an object of more interest, and the latter part of it is devoted to the explanation of his character and services, and the untimely doom that is their reward.

The rest of the story is devoted mainly to the love of Don Camillo Monforte for the Donna Violetta of Tiepolo, the last of a wealthy and powerful Venetian family, in whom centered the riches of the race, making her, in addition to her own charms, a prize well worth the seeking, and therefore, according to the selfish and aggrandizing policy of the Venetian Senate, a prize not lightly to be yielded but in subservience to their own views ; more especially to a foreigner, for such Don Camillo was by birth, though in virtue of his descent entitled to much wealth and even senatorial rank in Venice itself. To claim these was the object of his residence in Venice ; and the manner in which his claims were thwarted, and the acknowledgment of them delayed, and the motives for so doing, as well as for attempting to prevent his success with the lady, as gradually developed in the progress of the story, afford a fine illustration of the mean and tyrannical character of the government.

By the assistance of Jacopo, zealously grateful for a little compassionate kindness on the part of Don Camillo, the latter is at length successful in foiling the watchful cunning of the police with their own weapons, and, relinquishing all hopes of his Venetian lands and lordship, flies to his own patrimony at a safe distance from the leap of the winged lion of St. Mark.

The third prominent division of the story, for there are three, (whether any or which of them is properly to be called an episode is a matter of little consequence) comprises

the adventures and fate of the fisherman Antonio ; the tumult or insurrection of his brethren of the Lagunes, consequent upon the discovery of his body ; and the manner in which that tumult was allayed by turning the rage of the populace upon an innocent person, the reputed Bravo, Jacopo, and causing him to die, as the scape-goat of the government, in defiance of the earnest wishes and entreaties of the Doge, who had been convinced of his innocence by the pathetic intercession of Jacopo's betrothed and a pious Carmelite friar, who had performed the last offices of the Catholic religion to the fisherman when living, and who had witnessed his death by the authorized agents of the Council of Three. These three divisions are interwoven with each other with sufficient, if not always with great skill, and all tend in their different events to elucidate the character and conduct of the government with regard to as many different classes of society, that is, the nobility, the laboring classes, and its own immediate agents and dependents. Various characters of less importance are introduced to fill up the picture, and give it the necessary grouping and animation, while they contribute in some appropriate measure to the great end of the work.

The plot of the story, as we have thus detailed its component parts, is well calculated to fulfill what we consider to have been the author's great design in the selection of his subject, and in the execution of his work, though it may possibly be deemed defective by those who are disposed to criticize such things by the rules of art. We are not ourselves such tenacious adherents of the laws of the *Epopœia*, as to refuse to be satisfied with a work of this kind, that pleases and interests us, because the author might make it better by making it otherwise than it is, or by submitting his own conceptions to the plans that suited the conceptions of others who wrote before him with success.

In the characters and events of the story we recognise much of Mr. Cooper's usual excellence. Jacopo, and Antonio, the old fisherman, are well conceived and delineated, and ably supported. Antonio, in particular, we think one of our author's best creations, and from his first appearance to his last he invariably commands our respect and admiration ; though we should not have expected to find such a character in his situation, yet nothing in him that we recall, seems overstrain-

ed or unnatural. Jacopo is almost equally well drawn, and we become much interested in his fate towards the conclusion of his tale, and feel much commiseration for his tortures of hope deferred and life made unavoidably loathsome, as well as for the pitiless cruelty with which his career is terminated.

The senators Gradenigo and Soranzo form a fine contrast, and exhibit well the corrupting effects of ambition and arbitrary power upon the nobler feelings of man; the one exemplifying the advanced stages, and the other the commencement of a similar career.

Gelsomina, the betrothed of the Bravo, unknown to her in that relation, is a beautiful and beautifully drawn character, and must, we think, be admitted as a strong negative to the sweeping assertion that Mr. Cooper does not seem capable of conceiving or delineating with effect his female personages.

The other characters, without any thing particular to distinguish them, are good in their respective places, and are depicted with sufficient ability and accuracy.

Our first impressions on taking up the book were, that we should miss much of Mr. Cooper's peculiar excellence, his powerful and glowing description of the scenes of nature, and of those where human beings are congregated under motives of excitement, and laboring to some particular individual or common end. We were however agreeably disappointed; the Regatta (or, in plain English, the rowing-match) is highly animated and picturesque, and well worthy of the author's reputation. He seems as much at home in the midst of the canals and in the Lagunes of Venice as in the Hurlgate and the broad Atlantic, or the pathless woods and prairies of our western country; and manages his gondolas with as much grace and effect as he does his favorite Baltimore schooners.

There is one scene that perplexed us as to its merits; we mean that in the secret sitting of the Council of Three, wherein the old senators, laying by their habitual craft and policy, indulge for a few moments in recalling the festivities and dissipations of their youthful days, and give loose to a merriment little suited to their years and habitual pursuits, and least of all to the purposes for which they had then come together.

The work indeed has its faults, and they are those of

which Mr. Cooper has been reminded before, and which we should be heartily glad if he would amend. He might indeed do so by a little attention to revising and polishing his manuscript before it was committed to the printer; and the increased favorable effect upon his readers would amply compensate him for the additional labor. There is occasionally unnecessary earnestness of description and preparation, without any consequent end worthy of them, and needless repetitions of peculiarities of description, or particular illustrations of circumstances; thus, two or three times the Giant's Staircase is mentioned as being the steps down which the head of Faliero rolled, and we are told more than as many times, that the "leap of the winged lion is shortened," in the same or some similar phrase. There is also in the present work, what we consider to be a great blemish running through the character of the dialogue between the humbler personages of the story. We do not know indeed from personal observation how the lower class of Italians talk, but so far as we can judge from some little acquaintance with Italian writers, particularly some of their favorite comic dramatists, we should doubt if Mr. Cooper had given to their conversation exactly the right tone. They are sententious and fond of using proverbs in discourse; but we think they do not use the enigmatical, far-fetched, and figurative language attributed to the North American Indians; yet such appears to us, at times, the resemblance between some of the responses in "*The Bravo*," and the style of dialogue in some of our author's preceding works, that by substituting the "*Master of Life*" for "*St. Mark*," and making one or two slight corresponding changes, we could fancy ourselves again among the *Dacotahs*, the *Pawnee Loups*, or the *Delawares* of the hills.

On the whole, we have perused "*The Bravo*" with much pleasure, and esteem it such a production, as, if it do not add to the author's reputation, in the eyes of candid judges will not be considered as impairing it, and as containing, in addition to the fair amount of amusement and interest looked for in works of this class, much in elucidation of the author's particular design, that renders it far more valuable than most works of the kind.

ART. X. — *Annals for 1832.*

1. *The Token*. — The present is the fifth volume of this popular annual. It surpasses all its predecessors, in beauty of execution and in the variety and excellence of its contents. It has indeed the usual ingredients of good, bad, and indifferent. It has some prose, with little meaning, and more poetry with less. Many of the pieces, however, are excellent in their kind. "My Wife's Novel" is written in a vein of the happiest humor, and is of itself enough to fix the reputation of the volume. "The Blue Stocking" is a pleasant specimen of Miss Sedgewick's powers of close observation and witty remark. It is adorned by her usual purity and grace of style. No American writer surpasses this lady in the unbidden and indescribable proprieties of language, exquisite truth of sentiment, and in short all the fine qualities of mental and moral taste, so to speak, which form the basis of elegant literature. In general, the prose of "The Token" is vastly superior to the poetry. "The Theology of Nature," by Mr. Dewey, has a high moral tone, and is eloquently written. It augurs well for the public taste, that such writers find acceptance, amidst the gaiety and sentiment of a fashionable Annual. "The Bashful Man" is a feeble imitation of a fine piece, with the same title, in one of our school books. The attempts at wit are afflicting failures. It is matter of surprise that an editor, who usually displays so much taste, could admit a story, at once so weak and coarse. The engravings are generally excellent. We were particularly pleased with "Will he Bite?" "The Freshet," and "The Fairy Isle." "Byron at the Age of 19" is remarkable only for being accompanied by a set of verses which are remarkable for nothing. This stanza,

"Thy many hours of deep unrest  
From wounded love and wounded pride;  
Thy years, unblessing and unblest  
Unlifted mists and shadows hide,"

ought to have been, like Mr. Willis's "Music" and "Philosophy," unwritten.

2. *The Atlantic Souvenir*. — This is also *got up*, as the phrase is, in exquisite taste. Some of the writers are the same who contributed to "The Token." "Berkely Jail,"



by the author of "Hope Leslie," is an interesting story, told in a style highly characteristic of its author. "The Dunce and the Genius," by Mr. Paulding, besides being full of peculiar and admirable wit, has a moral value on account of its fine satirical hits at certain very absurd and much cherished notions about "genius," which have been the ruin of many self-conceited, but otherwise tolerably clever young gentlemen. Miss H. F. Gould has contributed several sprightly pieces. Indeed every thing from her pen is sure to possess a high degree of excellence. Most of her writings, at least those which we have seen, are of the playful kind, and in this she certainly meets with no common success. We have often been attracted by the poetry of Mrs. E. C. Embury. Her verses are harmonious and finished, and breathe the deepest spirit of feminine tenderness. The "Stanzas to a Sister" are finely conceived, and expressed with a delicacy, pathos, and truth to the feelings of nature, which none but a woman could have given them.

The engravings of this "Souvenir" are generally beautiful. We must, however, take some exceptions to "Isidore." This is copied from the engraving of "Lady Georgiana Agar Ellis," in the "National Portrait Gallery." They have taken this lady, who is said to be (and the picture just referred to vindicates the assertion) one of the most beautiful women in the dominions of his British Majesty, and given her (Heaven pardon them for it) dulness enough to spoil her good looks, and christened her Isidore (which they had no right to do without her consent and an act of Parliament), and tacked to her four sentimental and rather silly stanzas, which they *had* a right to do, if the spirit moved them thereunto. We have also another (Monsieur Tonson come again) "Lord Byron in early Youth," accompanied by some more verses, which, on the score of poetry, belong to the indifferent class, but are otherwise highly censurable.

"Was it thy fault, or fate? A future age  
Will answer truly. Earth is now too rude,  
In fitting characters thy name to page.  
Thou hast offended in thy scornful mood,  
The hypocrite, the bigot, and the prude."

Was it Byron's *fault* or *fate* that he lived in the daily and wilful transgression of the laws of God and man? Was it his

*fault or fate* that he constantly yielded to the wildest impulses of the passions, regardless of his fair fame, despising public opinion, reckless of the ties of kindred, of country, of home? But alas! "Earth is now too rude" to look with approbation on a miserable career like his. One man presumes to censure Byron's heartless sneers at virtue,—and *he* is a "hypocrite." Another ventures to put in a demurrer to his scoffs at religion,—and *he* is a "bigot." Pure and delicate woman shrinks with horror from the contemplation of his abandoned and unbounded libertinism,—and *she* is a "prude."

"Thou hadst, to heal  
Thy wounded spirit, in its *fond appeal* [?]  
A mother's blasting taunts ; in thy bright way,  
The ban-dogs bayed, till scourged with lash of steel ;  
Kindred fell off, friends failed, and *she*, the ray  
That should have blessed thy home, in cold clouds quench'd  
thy day."

False sentiment generally produces confusion and absurdity in language. To be a good writer, a man must be a good thinker ; that is, the *morale* of his thinking must be correct. There is truth, sober, deep truth, in the ancient maxim, that a good orator must be a *good man*. Mr. Moore gives an edifying picture of the *fond appeals* which the young Lord was in the habit of making to his unhappy mother. "Scourged with *lash of steel*." A *lash of steel* would have been a most suitable accompaniment, in reason as well as rhyme, to this same "fond appeal" ; but we are inclined to think that lashes are not usually made of that material. "And *she*, the ray," &c. ; how a "ray" can "quench" a man's "day," in "cold clouds," the poet did not pause to tell us. The purport of this passage is equally wide of truth. A man is responsible for his own character, whatever may have been his situation in early youth. If he is a bad man, in the maturity of his intellectual powers, it is his "fault," and not his "fate." Remove this principle, and you remove the corner-stone of the great social edifice. But a greater blemish in this piece (if possible) is the unmanly taunt thrown out against Lady Byron. Ever since the unhappy catastrophe which broke up the ill-starred union of Lord and Lady Byron, small poets, who have just capacity enough to mimic the false sentiment and maudlin misanthropy of the

bard, have vented their foolish spleen upon this accomplished woman. Now, how nice must that moral feeling be, how lofty and chivalrous must that spirit of honor be, which can sympathize with the self-inflicted or affected woes of an ungovernable debauchee, but has no sigh to spare, no tear of pity to shed, for the secret agonies, the *unspoken* and unspeakable pangs of a virtuous, lovely, and noble-hearted woman, a disappointed wife! It is time that such paltry cant — that plague-spot in the literature of the present age — should give place to sentiments of truth, justice, and honor. It is time that poets, in whose souls the gentler virtues of chivalry are supposed to reign with an especial power, should cease to insult the name of a retired and defenceless lady, for the sake of palliating the manifold wickedness of a literary favorite.

The above are the two principal Annuals. We have on our desk also several others. "*The Christian Offering*" is useful in design, and highly interesting in matter. It does not come forth in the splendid array of "*The Token*" or "*The Souvenir*," but will be an acceptable present to the lovers of correct taste and good moral feeling. "*The Pearl*," published in Philadelphia, is a pleasant volume, recommended by good taste and purity of sentiment. "*The Amaranth*," published in Newburyport, and hastily done, has several excellent contributors. We were particularly pleased with two pieces, by the Rev. Mr. Withington, "*Whitefield*," and "*Advice to an Infidel*." They are full of rich thought, expressed in strong and felicitous language, and, excepting a few carelessly constructed sentences, are every way worthy of the reputation of their author.

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ART. XI. — *The American Almanac and Repository of Useful Knowledge, for the Year 1832.* Boston. Gray & Bowen. 12mo. pp. 312.

LET not our readers smile at the subject chosen for this review; or, if they do, let it not be a smile of derision, but of complacency; like that, a little ambiguous it may be, which we bestow upon some good-natured, talkative friend, when he intrudes unwelcome; but whom we would not repel, since we can better spare a better man. An Almanac is a

companion ready at all times ; and we can better spare a better book. It has something new to tell us every day ; but not always the most pleasing news. It tells the industrious out-door laborer how many months he must wait for the lingering dawn of every day, before he can ply his brawny arms in their accustomed labor. It sometimes leaves the merchant in no enviable suspense, lest the tide should rush into his richly stored warehouse and spoil his goods. It puts the timid evening visitor, having already worn out his welcome, to his wit's end, how to keep open the eyes of his host, till it announces that the queen of night is ready to enlighten his homeward path. Not only does it tell us what is and is to be, but informs us also about much that has been ; when some great men were born, and when they died ; when one nation was convulsed by revolution, and another became subject to foreign sway, and a third was triumphing in victory and conquest. Above all, it astonishes the ignorant and delights the scientific, by foretelling various celestial phenomena, and marking with precision the moments of their occurrence and continuance and termination ; thus revealing to us, in their issues, some of the most sublime operations of Deity in the material universe.

As every one must have an Almanac, some ingenuity has been displayed in hitting the taste of different classes of readers. Hence there are, or have been, in this country, for example, Almanacs and Calendars, with these various titles ; Health, Temperance, Anti-masonic, Churchman's, Clergyman's, Farmer's, New England Farmer's, Mechanic's, Christian's Almanac, and Christian's Calendar, Massachusetts Register and United States Calendar, and others perhaps, the names of which we have forgotten or never seen. There is no Physician's or Lawyer's Almanac, we believe ; though members of the latter profession have sometimes been charged with poaching for anecdotes in those repositories, so abundant as some of them are in stores of this kind. For we recollect some years ago an eminent barrister chiding a younger brother (who had made use, in his argument to the jury, of an illustration not the most delicate) by asking, "out of what old almanac the gentleman had picked up that story."

The American Almanac well deserves its comprehensive name. The astronomical department is again executed by Mr. R. T. Paine, a gentleman distinguished alike for the delight

which he takes in that department of science, and for the accuracy of his results. This part of the Almanac is adapted, both in the Calendar and in the accounts of the Celestial Phenomena, to the various portions of the United States.

The Second Part of the volume for the present year contains the last census, copious statistical accounts of the United States and single States, pertaining to government, religion, education, &c., besides notices of foreign countries, of which more is promised hereafter.

The information has been derived as well from private correspondence as from public documents, and embraces very little matter found in the preceding volumes, except on topics subject to annual change. This, with the two preceding volumes, forms a valuable record of various matters, which give it a just claim to that portion of its title in which it is called the *Repository of Useful Knowledge*.

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ART. XII. — 1. *Elements of Algebra*, by BOURDON. Translated from the French for the Use of Colleges and Schools. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1831. 8vo. pp. 304.

2. *Elements of Algebra*, by WILLIAM SMYTH, A. M., Professor of Mathematics in Bowdoin College. Portland. Shirley & Hyde. 1830. 12mo. pp. 264.

BOURDON'S ALGEBRA displays more of the spirit of modern analysis than any other elementary work on the subject that we have yet seen. The thoroughness and minuteness with which he conducts his investigations, must render him most useful to the student that is about to launch into the higher branches of the science. For he suffers no case of a demonstration to escape his examination, and he does not make use of any proposition, the truth of which he has not previously established. His processes are for the most part direct, and he seldom indulges in the ingenious devices to which mathematicians have recourse for abbreviating their writings and giving them a polish. These artifices have, we fear, too often glided into our elementary works; with all their brilliancy, they are to the inexperienced eye but monsters mysterious in their origin, that seem to guide to truth rather in

defiance, than by the aid, of reason; and we think them to be a great source of the dislike for mathematics at this time prevalent among the young men of our country. The student in the science of analysis, in that science which professes to teach not merely the knowledge of facts, but the art of acquiring such knowledge, is not to be satisfied with mere demonstrations and solutions, however intelligible, but wishes to learn how to solve problems and make discoveries for himself. Now, in every branch of mathematics there is some one general method by which nearly all the investigations may be conducted. This may often lead to long calculations and prolix demonstrations; but of what importance is this compared with the consideration that the general method requires but little more for its application than mechanical dexterity? And why not sacrifice brevity and it may be even clearness of demonstration, rather than confuse the learner by departing from the system which is sufficient for all the ordinary purposes of the science, and which can never perplex, though it may sometimes fatigue him?

Bourdon introduces his *Algebra* with an explanation of the different fundamental operations as indicated or performed by means of letters and other symbols. This part of the work is by no means sufficiently well defined and illustrated for beginners; the author seems to suppose his reader already familiar with the mechanical processes, and gives him only an abstract demonstration of them. His explanation of the method by which a reflecting mind might arrive at the rule for dividing one compound quantity by another, deserves a careful perusal by instructors in the science. For he has omitted, in his demonstration, to arrange his terms in any particular order, and yet he has preserved the simplicity of the reasoning. Now any thing like this arrangement, that tends to give an artificial character to a demonstration, ought to be carefully avoided. The subject of division, however, has, we think, been enlarged upon by our author more than is useful in an elementary work.

In the second division of his book, Bourdon investigates Problems of the First Degree. The only mode of elimination which he here illustrates, is that by addition and subtraction, and he elucidates the subject most fully by means of examples, before he proceeds to the consideration of the particular cases that may occur. The first case that he then

considers is that of negative results ; and he is led by induction to the general principles, that these indicate some incorrectness in the original equation, and that this incorrectness may always be rectified by a change of sign. He next proceeds to a general discussion of all the cases that may be met with in equations and problems of the first degree ; and this part of the work seems to us rather curious than useful. For the nature of the result is always, in these cases, sufficiently evident from the very enunciation of the problem ; and were it not so, the infrequency of these cases is too great to allow them to occupy the space they do in the work before us.

The Third Part begins with the Extraction of the Square Root and the calculation of Surds, and the author seems aware that a thorough acquaintance with these subjects can be obtained only by long practice. He therefore hurries from them to the consideration of Quadratic Equations ; and he applies his principles for resolving these to several well selected problems. His "General Discussion of the Equation of the Second Degree" is most complete and satisfactory ; yet we fear that its perfection will be lost upon most of our American students. Much of it, however, is necessary for the important section that succeeds, on Maxima and Minima.

From Equations of the Second Degree, Bourdon proceeds, in his Fourth Part, to the Indeterminate Analysis of the First and Second Degree. This analysis is most important to a practical mathematician, and ought to find a place in every work on algebra. Bourdon has given it a dress, which renders its application as simple as that of the Resolution of Equations, and has himself applied it to several problems.

The Fifth Part contains the Formation of Powers and the Extraction of Roots of any degree whatever. The demonstration of the Binomial Theorem which he has here given, does not appear to us sufficiently simple, though it may be the most elementary one. The theory of combinations and permutations, on which it is founded, is to most minds extremely obscure and intricate.

The Sixth and last Part contains a few Chapters on Arithmetical and Geometrical Progressions, and the work concludes with a simple and useful elucidation of the theory of Logarithms and of the method of using them. At the end of

the Algebra is annexed a most judicious note on Continued Fractions, and an excellent collection of "Questions for Practice."

But with all the claims that this work has to be considered the best work on Algebra that has yet appeared, we do not think it so well adapted to the present wants of our country, as the more unassuming treatise of Professor Smyth.

No work that we have seen appears to us better adapted than this latter one "to the purposes of elementary instruction." Its explanations are unaffectedly clear and simple, its examples are numerous, and selected with care, and it comprehends all that is necessary for any but the professed mathematician.

ART. XIII. — *An Introduction to Natural Philosophy ; designed as a Text-Book for the Use of the Students in Yale College.* In 2 vols. Vol. I. — *Mechanics and Hydrostatics. Compiled from various Authorities.* By DENISON OLMSTED, A. M., Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy. New Haven. Hezekiah Howe. 1831. 8vo. pp. 346.

THIS volume contains the "Mathematical Elements of Mechanics," and "Practical Applications of the Principles of Mechanics to the Arts and to the Phenomena of Nature, and Hydrostatics." In the First Part, which contains the "Mathematical Elements," the following subjects are discussed. The laws of motion, gravity, the ascent and descent of bodies near the earth's surface, the composition and resolution of motion, the centre of gravity, the collision of bodies, the motion of projectiles, the mechanical powers, the motion of bodies upon inclined planes, and the doctrine of the pendulum. The whole is illustrated by a copious collection of examples for practice, which seem well adapted to convey clear and precise knowledge to the learner.

The Second Part contains practical observations on the principles already discussed, and their application to the art of gunnery, to machinery, to the regulation of machinery, with a chapter on "Friction," and another on "The Strength of Materials and the Stability of Structures."

The remainder of the volume is devoted to Hydrostatics.



In it are discussed, liquids or non-elastic fluids in equilibrium, liquids or non-elastic fluids in motion, the cohesion and resistance of fluids, capillary attraction, the undulation of fluids, and the formation of waves.

The author's plan appears to be well executed, and we cordially recommend the work to those who are not desirous of extending their studies beyond the simple elementary portions of mechanical science.

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ART. XIV. — *Church Music, consisting of New and Original Anthems, Motets, and Chants, for Public Worship.*

By CH. ZEUNER, Organist to St. Paul's Church and to the Handel and Haydn Society. Boston. Richardson & Lord. 1831. pp. 151.

"BUT the grand end which the liberal arts are appointed to subserve, is the harmonious education, the ennoblement of the soul. For, as I conceive, the happiest state of man's intellectual nature must mainly consist in the most perfect harmony attainable of his ardent feelings, the clearness of his faculties, and the agreement of both with the determinations of an enlightened will.

"I have thought it not improper to say thus much of my idea of arts and their purposes, because, if the intention of the Creator had been only what the author above cited has told us, [i. e. the amusement of mankind] art would be no more to man than the thistle to the ass."

From these passages, which are taken from the Preface to the work under consideration, and which we think are forcibly if not beautifully written, it would seem that the author takes more elevated views of the character and dignity of his art, than is common in this country at the present day. He assigns to music a rank among the fine arts, and believes it capable of doing something more than merely contributing to the gratification of sense. He thinks that music, like its kindred arts, painting, sculpture, and architecture, is capable of acting upon the *mind*, and of contributing its share towards the moral education of man. It seems to us, that it has been too common in this country, to degrade music from its station among the liberal arts, to the level of mere sensual enjoyments. This circumstance has exerted a very powerful influ-

ence upon our sacred music, and caused it to lose almost entirely its character as a means of adding to the solemnity of public worship, and of raising and sustaining the devotional feeling of the worshipping assembly; so that it has degenerated into a mere exhibition of awkward attempts to surprise by the execution of music, difficult enough to be sure, but with little or no intrinsic merit. In its best estate our church music seems now to be thought of only as a pleasant interruption of the more severe exercise of prayer, or an agreeable recreation after the fatigue of listening to a long sermon.

We cannot help thinking that Mr. Zeuner is right in his views, and we hope that he will contribute something towards raising his art to the dignity and estimation which it deserves. We recommend the whole of his Preface to our musical readers, as containing more just criticism on music as an art, and more judicious advice concerning the practice of singing, than we have ever met with any where else.

As a composer of sacred music the author appears to us to have much merit. His work consists principally of *chants*, and those which we have examined appear to possess originality, and are composed in a pure and correct taste. The harmonies, without being too difficult of execution for choirs, are often wonderfully rich and effective. We sincerely hope that the success of this work may be such as to induce the author to continue his publications.

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ART. XV. — *A Summary of the Law and Practice of Real Actions; with an Appendix of Practical Forms.* By ASAHEL STEARNS. The Second Edition, with Additions. Hallowell. Glazier, Masters, & Co. 1831. 8vo. pp. 495.

THE law of Real Actions as existing in Massachusetts, and in other states following in her steps, has till lately been a subject of difficulty to the student and the younger members of the profession. Deriving the law and the precedents from the common law of England, it has been a serious question, how far, in the circumstances under which we are placed, that common law has been adopted by us. It was not till some years after these shores were first settled, that the question was much considered. For the early proceedings in

all our courts of justice were extremely simple, being divested of almost every thing technical, and each party being allowed to tell his story pretty much in his own way. It was but little more than the settlement of family difficulties according to the equitable views of the parent.

But as population increased and real estate became more valuable, and the proceedings in court more regular, greater regard was paid to the substance and to the forms of law. Discretion yielded to authority; not the authority of the person, but of those wise rules that had been established from age to age to guard the rights of all.

As it regards the New England States, correct legal practice had no existence before the eighteenth century, and even then was of gradual growth. One claiming property in land would commence his action for a fee simple, and summon the other party to answer in a *plea of the case*. But after some years, writs of entry were introduced; and it will probably be found by an examination of the old declarations, that they never were in use until the time when regularly educated lawyers appeared in the courts. During the present century, by the efforts of Chief Justice Parsons and his successors, the practice in this branch of the law has been brought to a good degree of perfection.

The action of ejectment in England under a feigned lease entry and ouster, which had its origin with Chief Justice Rolle, about the middle of the seventeenth century, was never used in New England, if we except a short period in Massachusetts, during the reign of James the Second. But in New York it was early introduced, and is still preserved, with much other cumbrous practice that has never prevailed at the north.

In New England the ancient law of Real Actions has been retained, stripped of numerous unnecessary refinements, and a host of idle appendages. And probably there are no precedents, we know of none, in which there is greater simplicity and plainness, than in those used in New England, in real actions.

The first edition of Mr. Stearns's work was published in 1824, when he was Law Professor in the University at Cambridge. The substance of it was delivered in lectures to the law students of the University. It is an elementary treatise, and is deservedly esteemed by the profession. He has stated,

with great clearness of style and method, some of the fundamental principles of the law of real property, and of "the ancient remedies, their form and structure, with the pleadings and evidence applicable to them." He has also given an interesting history of the early practice in Massachusetts, and has appended a large number of practical forms. These forms are of the concise and technical character contained in the Register and in Rastell, to which our author has very properly had frequent recourse.

Mr. Stearns in his modest Preface remarks, that his work is designed chiefly for students and the younger members of the bar. But it is valuable also to those more advanced in the profession; and even those who are best grounded in this kind of learning may recur to it with advantage and improvement. It has the merit of being the earliest treatise on the subject in this country, and of more than fulfilling all that the author promises; and though designed chiefly for Massachusetts and the other states that retain the old common law remedies in real actions, it will be found useful to the profession elsewhere. It is still used as a text-book in the new arrangement of studies at the Law School of Harvard University.

The second edition contains numerous additions, and embraces the cases decided since the publication of the first edition. These decisions are taken chiefly from Greenleaf's Reports of the Supreme Court in Maine, the New Hampshire Reports, Peters's Reports of the Supreme Court of the United States, Mason's Reports of the Circuit Court, containing the decisions of Mr. Justice Story, and Pickering's Reports of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts. A Table of Cases cited is prefixed; the want of which was felt in the former edition.

Three new precedents are introduced in the practical forms; one a *declaration* in an action by the assignee of the mortgagee setting forth the mortgage deed and assignment with *proferit*; another in an action by a mortgagee against mortgagor, setting forth the mortgage deed and condition; and a third, a *plea* that the demandant, who sues as minister, has resigned his office pending the writ. The second declaration is taken in substance from Mr. Jackson's valuable treatise. Mr. Stearns has retained in this edition the general form of declaring in an action by the mortgagee against the mortga-

gor, alleging simply the disseizin, and counting upon a seizin in fee and *in mortgage*, without stating the mode of acquiring the seizin. A learned writer in the *American Jurist*, who reviewed Mr. Jackson's treatise, suggested that this form might be bad on special demurrer; but the decisions of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts seem to have established its sufficiency. That lawyer is a benefactor to his profession and the public, who is able to shorten legal precedents, and still retain every thing substantial.

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ART. XVI. — *The Light of Nature Pursued*. By ABRAHAM TUCKER, Esq. From the Second London Edition, Revised and Corrected. Together with some Account of the Life of the Author, by Sir H. P. St. John Mildmay, Bart., M. P. 4 vols. 8vo. Cambridge. Hilliard & Brown. 1831.

It does not enter into our plan to give much space to notices of reprints of foreign works of known and long established reputation. Tucker's "*Light of Nature*" might perhaps be regarded as an exception, in some respects, to this rule, if we had room for a full examination of its character and merits; because, though familiar to a few readers, and extravagantly admired by them, it comes before the reading public generally, in this country, for the first time, and almost as a new work. It is a philosophical treatise, interspersed with the happiest touches of humor and eccentricity on man, his duties and expectations, and his relations to God and eternity. The author was a private gentleman of independent fortune, shrewd and good-tempered, mingling but little either in the political or theological disputes of the day, writing at his leisure and as the humor seized him, with but little regard either to the connexion or the consequences. This accounts for, and explains at the same time, his excellences, his faults, and his defects. By readers of a kindred genius and temper few books are perused with more interest and satisfaction than this, or recurred to with so much pleasure, or so frequently; and few books have done so much to help plagiarists to a reputation for smartness and originality. Mr. Tucker, however, must continue to share the fate of most persons of strong and marked peculiarities; those who do not like him,

are apt to be disgusted with his occasional extravagances, and to reject even his jests, in some instances, and his odd and curious illustrations, as ill-timed and impertinent. On the whole, candid and judicious critics will not say that he has done much to enlarge the boundaries of human knowledge. It is chiefly on his merits as a wit and humorist, and as a practical writer, that his reputation must stand. Much credit is due to the publishers, who have furnished a cheap and neat edition of a work which will be eagerly read by many, and which can hardly be read without affording both pleasure and instruction.

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ART. XVII. — *The Calhoun Doctrine, or State Nullification discussed.* Originally published in the "Irishman and Southern Democrat." By a DEMOCRATIC REPUBLICAN. Charleston, S. C. 1831. 12mo.- pp. 33.

"THE doctrines of Nullification," as they are commonly called, which, after for a time threatening the union of these States, were effectually put down by Mr. Webster in the Senate, in January, 1830, are becoming more thoroughly understood, as their origin, motives, and history are becoming more known. This pamphlet, written in South Carolina, and written with pungency as well as power, furnishes additional materials for their elucidation. What was known before was, that a sort of combination was begun on the subject in May, 1828, at the lodgings of General Hayne in Washington, which was afterwards exposed in a correspondence between Mr. Mitchell, General Hayne, and other members of the South Carolina delegation, who constituted the meetings thus held; that in the summer following the impulse thus given was felt in meetings held in Colleton District, at Edgefield Court-House, &c., advising, as they said in the report of the first assembly, "*an attitude of open resistance to the laws of the Union*;" that in the autumn, Mr. Calhoun so far forgot his pride of place and his duty to the Union, as to write for a committee of the Legislature of South Carolina, the remarkable "*Exposition and Protest*," which, as the author of the pamphlet now before us truly says, "has hitherto served as the text-book for Nullification;" and, finally, that in the session of 1829-30, a vio-

lent attempt was made to bring these doctrines forward in Congress, and give them countenance and currency under at least the implied sanction of the Senate ; on which occasion the great debate took place between General Hayne and Mr. Webster, which reduced the doctrines of Nullification, before so threatening, to the rank of an idle and exploded theory. So far we knew before. The present pamphlet contains further developements and explanations, — particularly on Mr. Calhoun's course of policy ; the cause of the depression of property at the South, and the attempts of Mr. Calhoun to conciliate to himself the passions of those who were thus suffering under losses, which he would persuade them were to be retrieved by means within the reach of the power of South Carolina, as a sovereign state, nullifying some of the laws of the Union.

The concluding remarks are striking ; and are as true as they are striking.

"It is among the most lamentable events of our history, that this heresy should ever have found countenance. It is not good to become familiar with evil. Its presence should always be shocking. New disputes may revive this discussion, and the opinions and arguments of the present day, although repudiated and refuted, will be dragged forth to suit some emergency, in the same manner as the oft rejected objections to the adoption of the present Constitution have been newly vamped up, and presented to shake the faith of the rising generation in our beautiful and beneficent system of government. It is not among the least of the lamented evils of this dangerous creed, that it has perhaps for ever cancelled all that admiration and kindness, with which the rising fortunes of the Vice-President were hailed by his whole country. It was indeed an evil hour in which hopes so bright, anticipations so elevated, and a destiny so full of honor and of fame, were all sacrificed upon the altar of this 'strange God.' " pp. 32, 33.

The whole pamphlet is worth reading, and contains facts and illustrations to which we at the North are little accustomed ; and though the great power and distinction must always belong to him, whose motto may well be, — *Diram qui contudit Hydram*, — still the argument against Nullification will be read with interest even after the greater argument in Mr. Webster's speech has become a settled and familiar article in our political faith.

ART. XVIII. — *Mr. Tuckerman's Eighth Semi-Annual Report of his Service as a Minister at Large in Boston.* Boston. Gray & Bowen. 12mo. pp. 48.

THE labors of Dr. Tuckerman, as missionary to the poor, are not the first attempts which have been made in the city of Boston for their moral and religious improvement. It is several years since a society was formed for that express purpose; and a system of operations was commenced, which, if not so judicious and thorough, as could have been desired; was not, we have reason to think, without essential benefit. It is believed, however, that no former efforts have excited so much public interest, and been attended with such beneficial results, as the services of Dr. Tuckerman. He has been employed in this mission for a little more than five years, during which time he has been eminently prospered in his labors, and has observed the most gratifying results in proof of their utility. His object, as we understand it, from this and former reports, is not to imbue the minds of his charge with the distinctive spirit and principles of any of the various religious sects which divide our community; he does not go out into the lanes and alleys and dark places of the city with the quixotic project of gathering recruits for any theological creed; but, simply as a minister of Christ and a friend of man, he wishes to urge the plain truths of that Gospel, which was first preached to the poor, and which is so rich in consolation for all the miseries which afflict our suffering nature. At the same time that he aims to impart pure and Scriptural religious instruction, he does not neglect the temporal wants of the poor who fall under his ministerial care. He has performed valuable services, by doing something for those who were unable to do any thing for themselves; and still more so, by aiding the industrious, but unfortunate; by giving counsel to the perplexed; by encouraging the desponding; and by presenting favorable opportunities to those who were able and ready to exert themselves, but who, from sickness, accident, or disappointment, were destitute of the means.

We regard a ministry of this character as one of the most efficient agents in social improvement and civilization, to say nothing of its religious influences. We cannot but wonder that far more interest is not felt in the subject. There is a



wide field not only in Boston, but in all our large cities, for the ablest services of many missionaries, possessing the good judgment, enlightened zeal, and deep devotion to the interests of the poor, which characterize the author of the present Report.

In this, as well as in former Reports, Dr. Tuckerman enters into very thorough discussions of the causes, evils, and remedies of pauperism, and enforces his reasonings by statements of appropriate facts, most of which have come under his own observation. We think no one can read these Reports without a deep impression of the importance of the cause which they advocate, and of respect for the head and heart of the writer.

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ART. XIX. — *An Address delivered before the Boston Sunday School Society on the Celebration of the Fifteenth Anniversary of the Sunday School Institution, at the Federal Street Church. September 14, 1831.* By EZRA S. GANNETT. Boston. Gray & Bowen. 12mo. pp. 42.

WE have not seen any Discourse called forth by the interesting occasion of the Sunday School Jubilee, which, upon the whole, seems to us more appropriate and impressive, than that of which we have given the title above.

After a brief history of the origin of Sunday Schools and of the labors of their principal founder in England, Mr. Robert Raikes, the writer proceeds to enumerate several distinct claims, which they present to the public favor and patronage, and then notices, with great fairness and discrimination, some of the objections which have been alleged against them. We cannot name the volume, which, in so small a compass, gives such a clear and just view of the real purposes and practical utility of Sunday Schools, as is contained in a few pages of this pamphlet. We think, that if any one is disposed to doubt whether the institution, whose merits are set forth by Mr. Gannett, can be conducted without reference to sectarian principles, and in a manner at once productive of eminent advantage to both parents and children, and free from all evils, this Address will convince him, that his scruples are without foundation, and that his objections are good, not against the institution itself, but only against the circum-

stances which may sometimes have been accidentally connected with it.

It would be a good service to put a copy of this Address into the hands of every Sunday School teacher in the country. No denomination of Christians will find in it any thing offensive to their peculiar views. It breathes a spirit of warm and glowing piety, and of fervid zeal in the cause of religious instruction, which no reader can fail to respect, and in some measure, at least, to feel and to make his own.

ART. XX. — 1. *A Critical Review of the Orthography of Dr. Webster's Series of Books for Systematic Instruction in the English Language; including his former Spelling-Book, and the Elementary Spelling-Book, compiled by Aaron Ely, and published under the name of Noah Webster, LL. D.* By LYMAN COBB. New York. 1831. 8vo. pp. 56.

2. *A Method of Acquiring a full Knowledge of the English Language, propounded at their Invitation, by A. B. JOHNSON, Utica, August 10, 1831, before the New York State Lyceum.* Utica. Northway & Porter. 1831. pp. 16.

WE received Mr. Cobb's work after our remarks upon "English Lexicography in the United States" were in the press; and it amply vindicates the caution with which we have spoken of Mr. Webster's claims to improvements in orthography. It shows Mr. Webster's great want of uniformity in his successive publications; and if this were all, we should not lay very great stress upon it, though it would justly lead to a suspicion, that the author was governed rather by temporary caprices, than by any fixed and permanent rules. But when we are furnished with irrefragable proofs, as in Mr. Cobb's Review of Mr. Webster's quarto Dictionary, of very numerous "*discrepances* in the orthography of the definitions and the text," in the same work, the subject comes very fairly before the public, and there is no reason why the whole truth should not be told.

"When I commenced," says Mr. Cobb, "the exposition of the *discrepances* in the orthography of the definitions and text of

the American Dictionary, I intended to show all which I had discovered ; but they are so numerous that the limits of this review will not permit me to pursue the exposition farther. I have already shown between *seven* and *eight hundred* discrepancies of this kind, and have noted about *five hundred* others." p. 18.

Having compared this Dictionary with others, in respect to orthography, Mr. Cobb pronounces its *defects*, *inconsistencies*, and *contradictions* to be much *more numerous* than those in any other dictionary.

This pamphlet exhibits the proofs of the most thorough examination into a minute though important subject, which it has ever fallen to our lot to witness. It is a document which will be of unspeakable value to any one who may hereafter undertake a new English Dictionary, or become responsible for the literary execution in the republication of such as are now used.

Mr. Cobb has reviewed for the same purpose, and in the same thorough manner, Mr. Webster's American Spelling-Book, and the Elementary Spelling-Book, published under his name. We know nothing of these books, to our shame it may be, far-famed and widely extended as they are, except what Mr. Cobb has told us. His Review is well worthy the attention of the author or proprietor of these Spelling-Books ; for, however unwelcome the truths that are uttered, none have more reason to be grateful than those whose duty and interest it is to render such elementary works as immaculate as possible.

Mr. Johnson's title-page promises too much ; but there have been titles to books pertaining to the knowledge of language, which promised more. We met some years since with the title of a book written by one *Dalgarno*, of Great Britain, and published in 1661, which, translated from the Latin, runs thus : " The Art of Signs ; or an Universal Character and Philosophical Language, in which men speaking different languages may be able, by studying it for the space of two weeks, to express their thoughts, either by writing or speech, no less intelligibly than individuals of the same community in their vernacular tongue ; by which also the young may acquire the principles of philosophy and true logic with much greater ease and despatch, than from the common treatises of philosophers."

Aside however from the exaggerated title of Mr. Johnson's Discourse, and from the strange notion that a dictionary is a book from which we are to get a full knowledge of *language*, and also from the collocation and use of words in the title-page, which, if not ungrammatical, are very peculiar, there is an independence and ingenuity in the Discourse itself, which are deserving of notice.

He would not destroy the present alphabetical arrangement of words, or any thing which belongs to lexicography as it now exists; but he would add what he calls words in *sets*; — as, “knowledge, knowing, know, knowingly.” Still, as such words are found near each other he does not insist much upon these regular derivatives being placed in close connexion. He is in search of deeper treasures. To show what *cobweb* is adjectively, he would note *araneous*; *summer* — *estival*; *iron* — *chalybeate*, *ferruginous*, *ferreous*. Again, the adjective or substantive should be followed by a verb of corresponding meaning; as *naked* by *denude*, *abscess* by *imposthume*. So also by the adverb; as, *praise* should have *eulogistically*, and *war*, *belligerently*. Still farther, he lays great stress upon correlatives and opposites, negatives and affirmatives, — and synonyms. Here are a few of them which our readers may class for themselves. *Horizontal*, *vertical*; *analogous*, *anomalous*; *weeping*, *illachrymable*; *heathen*, *ethnic*. Once more, a dictionary should collect together *modifications*, as he calls them, of other words, branching out as follows: *death*, — *euthanasia*, *posthumous*, *demise*, *defunct*, &c.

O shades of *Priscian* and *Sanctius*! rescue us from that “art in impious pharmacy,” which mingles with our wholesome Saxon food all sorts of foreign deleterious drugs of ancient and modern times, which the healthy philologer cannot choose but nauseate and dash from his lips.

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#### ERRATA IN NO. I.

Advertisement, page 1, line 18, for *pronounced* read *procured*.  
 Review, “ 18, “ 33, after *not* read *so*.

## NOTE.

WE have received a communication from Dr. Waterhouse, the author of the valuable work entitled "Essay on Junius," &c., which was respectfully noticed in the first number of this Review. The object of the communication is to prove,

I. That the *Miscellaneous Letters*, ascribed to *Junius*, are not *universally admitted to be genuine*; that most of them are *doubtful*, and some of them *spurious*; at the head of which last class are those signed *Poplicola* and *Anti-Sejanus*:

II. To impugn some of the facts adduced by the Reviewer, which favor the supposition that Earl Temple was the author of *Junius*.

Dr. Waterhouse denies that Temple wrote the "Enquiry into the Conduct of a late Right Honorable Commoner," (the Reviewer says it was "in substance the work of Temple,") and affirms that it was written by *Humphrey Cotes*. Dr. Waterhouse denies also, that Temple joined *Wilkes* in writing the *North-Briton*, and affirms that all the assistance he gave to *Wilkes* was in money and in good advice; and that the "Patriot" never failed to take the first, and to neglect the last. Dr. Waterhouse says further, that Lord Temple (he being *Junius*) could not have denied in print a knowledge of his own brother, nor have spoken in such a shameful manner of his sister's husband, under the signature of *Poplicola*, nor have written in the style of indecency which marks the closing paragraph of *Anti-Sejanus*; and, finally, that the rupture between Chatham and Temple did not result in *bitter enmity*, but in a *degree of estrangement* which fell much short of bitter enmity.

Dr. Waterhouse cites some authorities for these counter statements, together with illustrations from contemporaneous history, and gives his own arguments upon those authorities and illustrations. It is a very interesting communication, and we should gladly insert it as a discussion of facts concerning which the author of the *Essay*, the Reviewer, and the Editor can have no other motive than that of ascertaining the truth, except so far as either may be influenced by an opinion already formed and not founded on an estimate of the whole evidence in the case, which after all is full of difficulties. But as we have not room for Dr. Waterhouse's communication, and cannot do justice to it, without proceeding to a discussion which would interfere with the leading design of our work, we hope he will favor the public with his views and proofs upon the subjects in dispute in some other way. They would make a valuable Appendix to his book upon *Junius*, and would be perused with avidity by many readers.

THE EDITOR.

## FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

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**REVISTA BIMESTRE CUBANA.**—This is a remarkable phenomenon, — a periodical published every two months in a Spanish colony, and marked with a degree of vigor and literary taste and knowledge, entirely unknown in any similar attempts made in the Peninsula itself. It is published in Havanna, and we have received the numbers for June, August, and October, 1831. The articles in the first number on the History of the Island of Cuba, in the second on Maury's *Espagne Poétique* and the Life of Jovellanos, and in the third on Spanish Synonyms and *Campomanes*, are written with a marked ability. The rest are generally valuable, and the short notices at the end give a view of the present state of the Spanish press, which cannot, we think, be found elsewhere ; certainly not in any publications coming from Spain Proper. The whole is a desirable and important contribution to our stock of knowledge and literary discussion, because it deals with materials and topics not elsewhere noticed, or noticed imperfectly and clumsily. It is published in some degree under the protection of the *Real Sociedad Patriótica* ; but its editor, we believe, is *Don Mariano Cubi i Soler*, whose excellent works for the study of different languages are well known in this country.

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**REVUE ENCYCLOPÉDIQUE.**—From an advertisement to this work for September last, it seems that it has been transferred by *M. Julien* to new editors, who ascribe to him the honor of having conceived and thus far in a good degree executed the plan of collecting together from various sources what was most remarkable in literature and science, in different languages, and embodying the scattered materials in his work ; and consider him entitled, as the founder of the *Revue* which opens a common *rendezvous* for fragmentary compositions, to the thanks of the learned world. The plan of the *Revue*, it appears, will not be hastily modified, though it will be considerably extended from one period to another. The new editors promise to render more complete their monthly account of books, in order to realize the primary object of the work ; and to analyse and pronounce their judgment upon the principal publications in all languages, and thus to save studious men from tedious researches, immense reading, and expensive correspondence. A promise is given that the next number shall contain in detail the views of the present editors upon the *desiderata* concerning science, and the character which they wish their collections to assume. The advertisement is signed, Hippolyte CARNOT.

**ALLGEMEINE GESCHICHTE. UNIVERSAL HISTORY**, by CHARLES DE ROTTECK, Professor at the University, and Member of the Academy, at Munich. Seventh edition. Friburg. 1830. 7 vols. 8vo. — "This work," says the *Revue Encyclopédique*, "is one of the most remarkable of our times; of which no other proof is needed, but the avidity with which it has been received. There have been sold, in seven editions, more than ten thousand copies. The literary journals of Germany have all given it a marked attention. The following is a summary account of its plan and division. Three volumes are devoted to antiquity; the fourth extends from Theodosius to Charlemagne; the fifth, from Charlemagne to the end of the Crusades; the sixth, from that epoch to the discovery of America. This M. Rotteck marks as the beginning of the modern epoch; he then continues the history from the discovery of the two Indias to the peace of Westphalia; then to the French Revolution; and closes with the seventh volume at the formation of the Holy Alliance. A Table of Contents forms a small additional volume. The Introduction contains profound views upon history itself, the accessory knowledge, the sources, and the manner in which a writer should draw from them. It contains also excellent views of chronology and geography. Each of the periods is preceded by an indication of the sources to which M. Rotteck has had recourse, and a short chronological discussion. After the recitals there occur, in each volume, general considerations upon the civilization of governments, on religions, arts, and sciences. We mention as particularly excellent the History of Mahomet; the grandeur of the Popes; the account of the Crusades; reflections on Chivalry, and on the armies of the middle age. The thirty years' war is admirably summed up; it is marked throughout by rapidity, clearness, and, above all, by critical excellence. The author presents history under an aspect truly philosophical." — *Revue Encyclopédique*, July, 1831.\*

MM. CHAMPOLLION the Younger, and H. ROSELLINI, propose the following work, as its title is given in the *French Bulletin* for March, 1831. "MONUMENTS OF EGYPT AND NUBIA, considered in relation to the history, religion, and civil and domestic usages of ancient Egypt; described according to researches made in those countries during the years 1828 and 1829, by the two scientific commissions, French and Tuscan, and published under the auspices of the government of France and Tuscany. (*Prospectus*.)" It is to contain ten volumes of text in octavo, 400 to 500 pages each, and 400 plates, of which 100 at least will be colored. The work is to be divided into three sections, containing, I. The Civil State; II. Historical Monuments; and, III. Religion, and Public Modes of Worship of Ancient Egypt.

It will be printed simultaneously (and at the same price) in French at Paris, and in Italian at Pisa. M. F. Didot will superintend the French text, and M. Capurro the Italian.

\* It is mortifying to be obliged to take accounts of German Literature from journals of other countries; but there are no recent German *periodicals* within our reach. *Rotteck* is unquestionably an interesting and popular writer, but his thoroughness in historical accuracy and research, is, by some competent judges, called in question.

It is to appear in forty numbers, the first being promised for January, 1832. The expense is not to exceed 800 francs, and the work is to be completed in three years. The name of Champollion is closely connected with the late discoveries in regard to the decyphering of Egyptian Hieroglyphics; and the curiosity of the learned is awake to see the additions that may be made to what is known concerning ancient Egypt.

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**THÉORIE DES RESEMBLANCES**, ou *Essai philosophique sur les moyens de déterminer les dispositions physiques et morales des animaux d'après les analogies de formes, de robes et de couleurs*; par le Chevalier DA GAMA MACHADO. Paris. 1831. Orné de 20 planches coloriées.

*M. Lesson* (an abstract of whose review of this work, we take from the *Revue Encyclopédique*,) predicts that it will be received with prejudice by naturalists whose ideas are already fixed and limited; since the anatomist in a manner rejects every thing that his scalpel does not demonstrate to his eyes, and the physiologist supports his theories of life only upon the fundamental and physical organs.

The leading doctrine of *M. Machado* is this: *That every being of whatever class, which resembles another, in its external form, must have dispositions and habits similar to those of its prototype.* For a long time there prevailed among naturalists the false opinion, that the color of animals and their exterior teguments were fugitive, variable, and unimportant, and that the hair and the feathers, for example, did not furnish good zoological characteristics. *M. Machado*, in giving so great a physiognomical importance to those parts, has perhaps gone beyond the mark; but he is supported in his general opinion by various naturalists, who maintain that the nature and form of the hair and feathers, and even their color, are sufficiently determinate to be of very great weight in referring animals to their species and families.

A very interesting part of the work of *M. Machado* is that in which he describes the habits and dispositions of the animals he has raised, with remarkable perseverance, and at great expense.

The book is intended chiefly for the fashionable, and especially for females of that class; the author wishing them to substitute for their frivolous *albums*, the delightful study of nature.

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**WESTMINSTER REVIEW. SENDING FREE NEGROES TO AFRICA.** — In the number of this Review for October, following the title of the same, there are a few very general remarks upon the affairs of different nations; and among them the following concerning this country. "The Americans are successfully planting free negroes on the coast of Africa; a greater event possibly in its consequences than any that has occurred since Columbus set sail for the New World."

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**LONDON UNIVERSITY CALENDAR FOR 1831 - 1832.** — This book is announced in *Ben's Literary Advertiser* for November, as to be expected daily; containing a history of the institution, an outline by each Professor of his plan of instruction, examination papers, hours of attendance, fees, lists of prizemen, certificated students, proprietors, &c.



## LIST OF BOOKS PUBLISHED AND IN PRESS,

FOR JANUARY, 1832.

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### *Carey & Lea, Philadelphia.*

- Encyclopedia Americana. Vol. 8.  
History of France. By Eyre Evans Crowe. Vol. 3.  
Wheaton's History of the Northmen, or Normans and Danes. 8vo.  
Reid's Treatise on Clock and Watch Making, Theoretical and Practical.

### *Grigg & Elliot, Philadelphia.*

- Peters's Condensed Chancery Reports. Vol. 2. 8vo.

### *R. W. Pomeroy, Philadelphia.*

- Essays on the Pursuit of Truth, the Progress of Knowledge, and the Fundamental Principles of all Evidence and Expectation. 12mo.  
Essays on the Formation and Publication of Opinions. 12mo.

### *J. & J. Harper, New York.*

- Modern American Cookery. By Miss Prudence Smith. 16mo.  
The Life of Sir Isaac Newton. By David Brewster. 18mo.

### *T. & J. Swords, New York.*

- The Pomological Magazine. By William R. Prince. 8vo.

### *Durrie & Peck, New Haven.*

- Select Practical Writings of Richard Baxter, with a Life of the Author. By Leonard Bacon, Pastor of the First Church in New Haven. 2 vols. 8vo.

### *William Hyde, Boston.*

*In Press.*

- Book of Ornithology for Youth. By the Author of "Peter Parley's Tales." 18mo.

The Universal Pocket Gazetteer. Edited by the Author of "Peter Parley's Geography."

- The Etymological Cyclopedia. By D. J. Browne.

### *S. H. Parker, Boston.*

*Publishing in Monthly Volumes.*

- The Waverley Novels, to be comprised in Twenty-seven volumes. Vol. 1, containing "Waverley," was published on January 1st.

### *Richardson, Lord, & Holbrook, Boston.*

*In Press.*

- Lempriere's Classical Dictionary Abridged, but containing every Name in the Octavo edition. Royal 18mo.

*Carter & Hendee, Boston.**In Press.*

An Introduction to the Study of Human Anatomy, with Illustrations. By James Paxton, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c., and Author of the "Notes and Illustrations of Paley's Natural Theology;" with Additions, by an American Surgeon.

The Ladies' Family Library. Edited by Mrs. Child, Author of "The Mother's Book," "The Frugal Housewife," &c. — Vol. 1. Biography of Distinguished and Good Women.

The Art of Being Happy. In a Series of Letters from a Father to his Children; upon the basis of Droz, *Sur l'Art d'Etre Heureux*. By the Rev. Timothy Flint, Author of "Travels and Residence in the Mississippi Valley," "Geography of the Western States," &c.

A Sketch of the late Revolution in Poland, accompanied by Explanatory Plans and Maps. By Joseph Hordynski, Major of the Tenth Regiment of the Lithuanian Lancers.

A Compendium of the Useful Arts. With Plates. Adapted to the Use of Schools and Academies.

Self-Education, or the Means of Moral Progress. Translated from the French of M. le Baron Degerando. Second edition. In 1 vol. 12mo.

Elements of Natural Philosophy, for Academies and Schools. By F. J. Grund, Author of a "Treatise on Plane and Solid Geometry," and Translator of "Meier Hirsch's Problems."

*Perkins & Marvin, Boston.**In Press.*

Biography of Eminent Self-Made Men. 12mo.

Memoir of Addison Pineo. 18mo.

*L. C. Bowles, Boston.**In Press.*

Juvenile Library. Vols. 2, 3, and 4.

Sermon at the Ordination of the Rev. E. H. Edes at Eastport. By the Rev. Jason Whitman.

*Hilliard & Brown, Cambridge.*

Commentaries on the Law of Bailments. By Joseph Story, Dane Professor of Law in Harvard University. 8vo.

Remarks on the Mineralogy and Geology of Nova Scotia. By Charles T. Jackson and Francis Alger. [From the Memoirs of the American Academy.] 4to.

*In Press.*

Ware on the Formation of the Christian Character. Seventh edition.

Folsom's Livy. Third edition.

The Capitevei of Plautus.

THE  
AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW.

MARCH, 1832.

- ART. I. — 1. *C. Crispi Sallustii de Catilinæ Conjuratiōe Belloque Jugurthino Historiæ*. Animadversionibus illustravit CAROLUS ANTHON, Lit. Græc. et Lat. in Coll. Col. N. E. Prof. Jaiius. Editio Quarta, prioribus longè emendatior. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, and Wilkins. New York. G. and C. and H. Carvill. 1831. 12mo. pp. 386.
2. *Sallust*. Translated by WILLIAM ROSE, M. A.; with Improvements and Notes. [Classical Family Library, No. V.] New York. J. & J. Harper. 1831. 18mo. pp. 242.

THE late publication of a translation of Sallust as one of the volumes of a popular work, has called some attention to the character of Sallust as a man and a writer. It may be well, therefore, to state the substance of the testimony of ancient authors respecting him.

Caius Crispus Sallustius (we “love,” with Doctor Primrose, “to give the whole name,”) was born B. C. 86; and died B. C. 45. He was a man of loose morals and profligate habits, and when governor of Numidia, amassed immense wealth by injustice and extortion. But his writings are not sullied by the impurity of his own mind; their morality is of the most stern and unbending severity; he praises the virtue which he does not imitate, and condemns in others the vice which he allows in himself. His style is remarkable for brevity, both of thought and expression, in which he imitated Thucydides; and for the use of obsolete words, which he borrowed from the writings of the elder Cato. Quintilian honors him with this high praise; “Nec Thucydidi opponere Sallustium verear;” and Martial, by a flattering poetical

license, speaks of him as "Crispus Romanâ primus in historia."

Sallust, in this country, is studied too early in the classical course. It is one of the books in which candidates are examined for admission into our colleges. But, from his peculiar style and orthography, and his frequent obscurity of meaning, this author is so difficult, that few boys can tolerably translate his language, still fewer can enter into his spirit. It would be far better that some easier work, as Cæsar or Ovid, should take the place of Sallust among preparatory books, and that the latter should be read in College, at a more advanced stage of the course. Our opinion is supported by the authority of Quintilian: "*Livium a pueris legendum velim, magis quam Sallustium; ad quem intelligendum jam profectu opus sit.*"

We proceed to examine "Anthon's Sallust." The printing of the book is by no means creditable to the publishers, or those concerned in the mechanical execution. The eye is frequently offended with imperfect letters, and with the omission, particularly at the ends of lines, of letters, hyphens, and points.

We read on the title-page, in good plain English, the names of the places in which the book is published; and the publishers names are linked together by our vernacular connective *and*. "*Boston: Hilliard, Gray, Little, and Wilkins.—New York: G. and C. and H. Carvill.*" On the reverse of the title-page we read, "*Excudit R. & G. S. Wood;*" and on the next page, "*Excudit Johannes T. West & Soc.,*" a similar honor being bestowed also upon the fabricator of the stereotype. There should be a consistency in these little matters, which some one should look to. In regard to *excudit* instead of *excuderunt* (for which reading we suppose the editor is responsible), we presume that it is not an oversight, and that Professor Anthon thinks it defensible. If so, we must differ from him. He will undoubtedly allow that the verb must be put in the plural after two nominatives singular, or two nominatives, one in the singular, and the other in the plural, as a general rule. And why he has resorted to an exception or to a figurative syntax in such a simple annunciation, it is not for us to say. Such an ellipsis is not common in classical authors; and when it is found, generally, if not always, some adjunct is interposed between one or both of the nominatives, and the verb.

A Latin Dedication to Bishop Hobart, of twenty-one lines, is followed by a Latin Preface, six pages in length. We have an objection in general to Latin prefaces to editions of the ancient classics. We acknowledge indeed the truth of Cowper's remark; "What a dignity there is in the Roman language! The same thought, which, clothed in English, seems childish and even foolish, assumes a different air in Latin;" but when we meet with a Latin preface to a Latin author, we cannot avoid making a comparison between the language and style of the author, and those of the editor; a comparison seldom to the advantage of the latter. A still stronger objection lies against a Latin preface to a school-book, in which the biography of the Latin author, and the critical notes, interpretations of peculiar passages, and various commentaries are given in a modern language, as is the case in the book before us, making a *farrago libelli* at variance with good taste and good judgment.

Two pages of the Preface are occupied with a notice of the character of the late Professor Wilson, written, as the author states, with the view of appeasing the *manes* of his friend. Far be it from us to speak with levity of the feelings with which a man cherishes the memory of a deceased friend and teacher. But since that very estimable man and scholar has so long ceased from his labors, and so few of the readers of this book will feel any interest concerning Mr. Anthon's opinion of him, this rhetorical display seems not to have either of the essential requisites for a composition of this kind, namely, those of time and place.

We hope we shall not be classed with the "*nugatores nugacissimi*" against whom the author indignantly declaims, if we make one more allusion to the style of the Preface. Johnson once asked his friend Warton, "Which do you think the best line in my translation of Pope's Messiah?" at the same time repeating his own favorite line. "I told him," says Warton, "I thought it a very sonorous hexameter. I did not tell him, it was not in the Virgilian style." Of Mr. Anthon's Preface we say; It is a very sonorous piece of Latin. We will not say, It is not in the Ciceronian style.

We go on to the text. Mr. Anthon has followed, generally, the text of Cortius, but has assumed the authority of altering it by adopting the readings of other editions. This he should have done more cautiously. He has often varied

from the text of Cortius on very slight grounds. The text is, therefore, a medley of the readings of various editors.\* The punctuation, in our judgment, is often faulty. In this respect, it presents a striking contrast to that of the London edition of Sallust, after the text of Cortius, in the "Regent's Classics," an edition so remarkable for accuracy in the pointing. We are sorry to see that the editor has neglected, in a book for the use of schools, to place the circumflex over ablatives in *a*; a rule which it has been thought proper to adopt in the London edition of the classics above mentioned.

The text is printed with tolerable accuracy. Some errors, however, are retained from the preceding edition. Thus, to say nothing of mistakes in pointing, we find on page 19, *maledictia* for *maledicta*; on page 22, *duobis* for *duobus*; on page 73, *Numidia* for *Numidiæ*; on page 121, *effusi* for *effusi*; errors which would be more excusable, were they not copied from the third edition. These are small things; and we would not notice them, did not this edition profess, upon its title-page, to be "*prioribus longe emendatior*."

Passing over a notice of the life and character of Sallust, from Dunlop's "Roman Literature," we come to the Notes. They occupy a very large portion of the book. Of the three hundred and ninety-seven pages of the volume, only one hundred and thirty-two are occupied with the text of Sallust, to be washed down by double the number of pages occupied by the Preface, Notes, &c. "O monstrous! but one half-penny worth of bread to this intolerable deal of sack!"

The Notes are certainly too long and too numerous. The Editor says, in his Preface, "*Mos apud alios nostratum obtinet, notulis solis, (quamvis immerentes sint parum refert) laudem et honores abundanter impertiendi, dum scommatibus et contumeliis commentaria uberiora dilacerare nituntur;*" and assails with expressions of contemptuous ridicule those of whom he speaks. We venture to differ from him. "People," says Temple, "that trust wholly to others' charity, will be always poor." Editors of the classics should beware, lest, in the fulness of their bounty, they relieve learners from all

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\* We should recommend to editors, in all cases of amended texts, to be thoroughly provided with authorities. F. D. Gerlach's text of Sallust, with copious critical notes on the readings, (published 1823) is deserving of great attention. His "Commentaries on Sallust" were published a year or two later.

reliance on their own resources. Notes in school-books should be brief, and to the point. There is no difficulty in finding notes on Sallust. We have before us editions, from which we could collect notes, and good ones too, enough to fill several such volumes as that under notice. To select, condense, reject, — this is the labor, this the work.

Many of the notes are upon various readings. These appear to us to be entirely out of place in a book for use in schools. We think an editor should adopt the text which is supported by the best authority, and forbear to perplex young students with arguments and conjectures.

A great many of them contain information which the student should be required to obtain from his "Classical Dictionary," his "Roman Antiquities," his Ainsworth, and his Grammar; and which he would thus obtain in a manner far more profitable to himself. We meet, too, with citations from Greek and French and German authors; as if one language at a time were not enough for the unhappy school-boy. Perhaps we may here be asked, whether the book may not be intended for advanced scholars. No; the Editor himself says that it is "tironum usui præcipue inserviens."

Many of the notes are totally unnecessary. Page 100, note 3, we find "*Indicem*, the informer." The boy will find the same meaning in his dictionary. Page 11, note 23; "*Post conditam urbem Romanam*, since the founding of the Roman city." What dunce, since Rome was built, ever needed an explanation of so simple a phrase?

To notes of another kind, which form the greater number of those in the book, we strongly object. They are those, which, not content with explaining to the student what a passage means, give him the words in which he is to express that meaning; — a fine thing for blockheads who love to make a show with borrowed plumes. Let us look at a few instances, taken at random. "*Infestum inimicum*, a bitter personal enemy;" "*incipere*, to enter upon the achievement of;" "*emori per virtutem*, bravely to encounter a speedy death;" "*virtutis præmia*, the recompenses of merit;" "*ingenii egregia facinora*, the splendid exertions of intellect;" "*aspera fœdæque evenerant*, had eventuated in disappointment and disgrace;" "*qui, aliquo negotio intentus, præclari facinoris, aut artis bonæ famam quærît*, who, in whatever employment he may be engaged, seeks for

the reputation attendant on some praiseworthy deed, or the exercise of some useful talent ;" "*prorsus multæ facetiæ multusque lepos inerat*, in a word, she possessed a large share of refined wit, and much captivating sweetness of expression ;" — and so on to the end of the chapter. Now we say ; Let us have none of this. Either require a boy to render, in his own words, the passage of which he understands the meaning, or give him a translation at once. Such paraphrases, sometimes offending against the rules of neatness and simplicity, may well be spared. The editor must not deem us hypercritical, if we venture here to remark, that such expressions as "*eventuate*," "*lection*," "*has got*," seldom occur in good English writers.

The last and worst fault which we find with the Notes is that many of them, if not incorrect, are such as may mislead the pupil. We might prove this assertion by many instances, but our limits confine us to a few. Page 2, note 22, we read, "*Bene dicere*, equivalent to *eloquentiam exercere*." Any one who looks at the passage will see that *bene dicere* is to be taken with *reipublicæ* understood, and means — to speak or write well for the state. But the novice would infer, very blamelessly, that the whole meaning was expressed by the abstract proposition — Eloquence is no mean acquirement. Page 18, note 21, "*lascivia*" is rendered "devotion to public amusements." Its true meaning is *gayety*, riot, or, as an old translator renders it, "*frolicknesse*." Page 13, note 5, "*cetera res expedit*" is explained by making *cetera* a nominative singular, and understanding *sese* after *expedit*. *Cetera*, we should think, is in the accusative plural, and is governed by *expedit*.

Page 100, note 6. "*Quieta*, given to uninterrupted repose." The sentence is, "*Neque post id locorum Jugurtha dies aut nox ulla quieta fuisse*," and means, in terms much more simple and natural than those of the editor, — "After that time Jugurtha enjoyed no peace of mind either by day or night." Page 111, note 7, "*munditias mulieribus convenire*" is made to signify that "*effeminate indulgences belong to women*." *Munditia* means "neatness, delicacy, elegant niceness." Most justly does Marius make it appropriate to woman ! Livy, with his usual felicity of expression, says, "*Munditiæ, et ornatus, et cultus, hæc scæminarum insignia sunt*."



Page 94, note 8. "*His natus*. Understand *virtutibus* after *his*. Most other editions read *is, natus*." Every edition that we have seen reads "*is, natus*;" every translation renders it according to that reading. The note is absurd. Marius possessed at birth of industry, honesty, military skill, valor in war, temperance in peace! Precocious infant!

Page 1, note 7. "*Animi imperio, corporis servitio, magis utimur*. This passage is commonly, though incorrectly, rendered as follows: 'We make more use of the empire of the mind *than* of the obedience of the body.'" By whom is it so rendered? Neither Crosse, nor Gordon, nor Rose, nor Steuart, gives this meaning to it. No commentator so explains it. It may have been often so rendered by boys at school; but this surely cannot justify a critic in saying that it is "commonly rendered." Now we have heard, in Horace, a lad translate "*Hæres, nequicquam cæno cupiens evel- lere plantam*, An heir, in vain desiring to pull a plant for supper;" yet we should hardly think of stating, in a critical note upon the passage, that it was "commonly" so translated.

Page 57, note 1. "In pronouncing *nunquamne* and *semperne*, the stress of the voice must be laid on the antepenultimate syllables, (*nūnquamne, sēmperne*.) Compare Port-Royal Latin Grammar, vol. ii, p. 357." We have compared the Port-Royal Grammar. It now lies open before us at page 357. The editor appears to us entirely to have misapprehended the force of the rule to which he refers. We will make no farther comment upon this note than to request our readers to read, according to the same principle of pronunciation, the following line from Horace:

"*Illuc, unde abili, redeo. Némone, ut avarus,*"

or the following, of a less distinguished author:

*Sēmperno ergo insanus eris? Nūnquamne valebis?*

We confess, that to our unpractised ear, a penultimate accent upon these words is far more agreeable.

"*Ab ovo usque ad mala*." — We have examined Professor Anthon's Sallust from title-page to *finis*. We have examined it carefully and impartially; and should have been delighted to have found it immaculate. But, while we respect the Editor's character as a scholar, and honor his unwearied devotion to classical learning, we must say, that both in regard to its mechanical execution, and its literary apparatus, valuable as are some of the Notes, it is not such a book as we should be

anxious to see upon the desk of the student, or in the library of the scholar.

The fifth number of the "Classical Family Library," republished by the Messrs. Harpers at New York, contains "Rose's Sallust." Provided that translations are kept out of schools, their circulation will be of advantage. Those whose pursuits prevent them from going to the fountain-head, who are not able to read the ancient classics, will do well to take them at second hand; those who cannot obtain originals, should embrace the opportunity of possessing themselves of copies.

Rose's translation of Sallust is accurate; his style is neat; his language pure. The style is, almost necessarily, more diffuse than that of the original, for Sallust has an "*immortalis velocitas*," unattainable in an English version; and this, therefore, may perhaps better be called a paraphrase than a translation. Bentley once mortified Pope, who wished to know his opinion of his translation of Homer, by saying, "It is a pretty poem, Mr. Pope; but you must not call it Homer." Dr. Rose's work is a pretty history, if we may not call it Sallust.

We may take, as a fair specimen of the whole, the translation of the celebrated comparison between Cato and Cæsar.

"As to their extraction, years, and eloquence, they were nearly equal. Both of them had the same greatness of mind, both the same degree of glory; but in different ways; Cæsar was celebrated for his great bounty and generosity; Cato for his unsullied integrity: the former became renowned by his humanity and compassion; an austere severity heightened the dignity of the latter. Cæsar acquired glory by a liberal, compassionate, and forgiving temper; as did Cato by never bestowing any thing. In the one the miserable found a sanctuary; in the other the guilty met with certain destruction. Cæsar was admired for an easy, yielding temper; Cato for his immovable firmness. Cæsar, in a word, had formed himself for a laborious, active life; was intent on promoting the interest of his friends to the neglect of his own; and refused to grant nothing that was worth accepting: what he desired for himself was to have sovereign command, to be at the head of armies, and engaged in new wars, in order to display his military talents. As for Cato, his only study was moderation, regular conduct, and, above all, rigorous severity. He did not vie with the wealthy in riches, nor in turbulence with the factious; but,

taking a nobler aim, he contended in valor with the brave ; in modesty with the modest ; in integrity with the upright ; and was more desirous to be virtuous than to appear so ; so that the less he courted fame the more it followed him." pp. 82, 83.

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ART. II. — *History of Ancient and Modern Greece : illustrated with Maps and Copperplate Engravings.* Edited by JOHN FROST. Boston. Lincoln & Edmands. 8vo. pp. 360.

WHENEVER an important and neglected branch of knowledge is rendered accessible to the public by a new book, we ought to be grateful to the author for the good accomplished, and indulgent towards the defects which may be found in the execution of any particular part of his work. The discharge of this duty is easy in regard to the work placed at the head of this article, combining so many excellences and marred by so few defects.

The study of history in all its branches has hitherto been neglected to a lamentable degree in our academies, colleges, and institutions destined for the pursuit of professional studies. The furnishing of a good class-book, therefore, for the study of one of the most interesting parts of the history of mankind, is certainly to be considered an important means towards introducing and establishing the study of history as a regular part of the instruction in literary institutions.

The work of Mr. Frost does not lay claim to originality. The Preface states that the first and larger part, containing the History of Ancient Greece, is a reprint of a part of "The Library of Useful Knowledge ;" and the latter, the History of Modern Greece, is compiled from "The London Encyclopædia," "The Encyclopædia Americana," and several recent works on the Greek Revolution. Allowing that Mr. Frost has made, in general, a judicious selection of materials, we shall not hold him accountable for all the particulars to which we may object in his work. The print is close but very distinct, and, what in a school-book is especially important, correct ; we have discovered but few errors. Most proper names, both of persons and places, appear in their original Greek form, which is certainly more becoming than that in which we generally meet them after their transmigration through the Latin and English.

The History of Ancient Greece is divided into chapters, most of which comprise periods well marked in the series of events ; and the chapters are subdivided into sections and paragraphs. The first chapter contains an account of the state of Greece previous to the Trojan war, and very properly commences with a geographical description of the country ; which, however, ought to be more full, as long as Ancient Geography is not a regular study accompanying that of Ancient History.

A frequent fault in the history of the earlier periods of nations, especially ancient nations, is the attempt to furnish a complete description ; the pains taken to fill up the few outlines which authentic records have transmitted to us, or severe investigation has brought to light, so as to constitute a finished picture. It is now well established, especially by the researches of Niebuhr, Beaufort, and others, that Roman history has suffered much from this propensity ; nor has the history of Greece entirely escaped its influence. In the latter it is of importance to point out the gradual transition from mythological traditions to the more solid ground of history. In this respect the above volume is open to criticism. How few of the events contained in the first three chapters, which bring the account down to the Persian wars, are facts well established as to their particulars and time ! How much are they mixed up with poetical fictions and the shallow accounts of after historians ! We are aware how much the effect upon the feelings and imagination is impaired by making at all times a nice distinction between history and fiction. We remember ourselves the painful sensation which we experienced, when we came to learn that Livy's account of the issue of the invasion of the Gauls and of the victory of Camillus was indeed in accordance with poetical justice, but not with historical truth. We should always bear in mind that the criterion of history is truth ; that of fiction, poetical beauty ; they should never be confounded. Much of what is contained in the first three chapters of the work before us is highly probable ; but it should not be kept concealed from the learner, that much is yet wanting to raise that probability to certainty.

A more serious objection, which we feel ourselves constrained to express, to this history, — more serious, because it is not confined to one portion, but, in a greater or less degree,

extends through the whole of the History of Ancient Greece, — is the scarcity of dates. A narrative without dates ceases almost to be history; the time in which an event takes place bears a very essential relation to the event itself. Without a knowledge of this time we cannot obtain a correct and clear idea as to the relation in which this event stands to any other, nor appreciate fully its importance. To illustrate this objection we shall refer to a few instances. It is said, page 15, that the date of the foundation of Sicyon and Argos is to be fixed at about the same time as that at which Cecrops formed his settlement in Attica; but we look in vain for some information as to the date of the latter event. Even a general statement would do much towards conveying a clearer idea as to the relative time of this immigration. The most common assumption is that Cecrops settled in Attica and Cadmus in Bœotia about 1550 B. C., Danaus in Argos about 1500, and Pelops also in Argos, about 1400. In the whole account of the Peloponnesian war, one of the most important periods of Grecian history, one date only, the fifty years' peace with Lacedæmon (421 B. C.), and at the close the extent of the whole war (431–403), are mentioned. The duration of the second Persian war, we think, is not mentioned. Would not much be contributed towards impressing the young student forcibly with the greatness and importance of the events of which he reads, if he found it plainly stated that the almost uninterrupted chain of great and heroic exploits from the passage of Xerxes over the Hellespont to the transfer of the chief command from Sparta to Athens is comprised within about ten years, from 480 to 470 B. C.? Few periods in all history are to be found in which so many events are crowded into so small a space of time. The student should perceive this clearly in order to estimate correctly Grecian perseverance and Grecian prowess.

In the latter part of the work dates occur more frequently, although with great inequality; Chapter xii. is almost entirely destitute of them. In a few instances, especially in the earlier history, there is a material variation from the commonly received chronology. The legislation of Lycurgus (page 34) is put in the year 708, instead of 880; the change from kings to archons for life, in Athens, after the death of Codrus, in 804, instead of 1068 (page 35); the archons for life, whose number by the way was thirteen, not twelve, governed

not 160, but 316 years, from 1068 to 752; the year of the legislation of Solon (page 36) is 594, about one hundred years before the Persian wars. We do not know to what these differences are owing, whether they are misprints, or errors, or statements founded on a different chronology. We highly approve the method of calculating according to the birth of Christ instead of mentioning the Olympiads, a method, which, however national, is inconvenient in itself, and still more so for a comparative view of the history of several nations.

The due proportion in the accounts of the several events seems to us to have been observed. Too much space, perhaps has been allowed to the account of the expedition of Cyrus the Younger (page 119); it was no national enterprise, and had no influence on the state of Greece. If it is to be mentioned at all, it is to be mentioned only as one of the most striking and interesting examples of a system extensively used at the time; we mean the system of employing mercenaries, which procured distinction and wealth to many individuals, but was as baneful to Greece as in modern times to Switzerland.

If there is any material omission in the History of Ancient Greece, it consists in there being no particular account given of the Grecian colonies, especially in Italy, which contributed no small share to refinement and luxury, to literature and philosophy. Towns and states such as Tarentum, which stood up a rival of Rome; Croton, which, in little more than one hundred years after its foundation was able to furnish 120,000 armed men in the war against the Locri; Sybaris, which raised an army of 300,000 men against Croton, and became proverbial for its luxury; Cumæ, Rhegium, and many others, are certainly too important in themselves and in their influence upon their mother country, upon other nations and after times to be omitted in a history of Greece.

Notwithstanding these exceptions which we have felt it our duty to make to the work, we recommend it most heartily as a class-book for schools or academies, and the lower classes of colleges. In the higher classes, the important study of history should assume a more scientific and critical character than belongs to this book, or would be judicious and advantageous in the instruction of younger students.

With regard to the latter portion of the volume, containing the History of Modern Greece, we shall content ourselves with a few words. Contemporary history is at all times a difficult undertaking, especially in an instance in which the peculiar situation of the nation whose history is to be written, affords so few facilities for procuring correct information of events and persons. We mention one instance, Capo d'Istria, who is now standing before a higher tribunal than that of public opinion; he is viewed by some as a true patriot and judicious statesman, who intended by degrees to conduct his countrymen to an honorable rank among the European nations, while others see in him merely a creature of Russian despotism, sacrificing the most sacred interests of his native country to the illiberal and grasping policy of that mighty northern power.

The greatest advantage which we look for in a history of this kind is, that it will tend to keep alive the feeble, indeed, yet widely spread interest in the exertions of the descendants of the most cultivated and refined nation of antiquity, struggling from a degrading state of political bondage into independence, and from a still more degrading state of ignorance and barbarism into a condition worthy of our age and religion.

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ART. III. — *Dyspepsy Forestalled and Resisted; or Lectures on Diet, Regimen, and Employment, delivered to the Students of Amherst College.* By EDWARD HITCHCOCK, Professor of Chemistry and Natural History in that Institution. Second edition. Enlarged by an Address delivered at Andover, and an Appendix. Amherst. J. S. & C. Adams. 12mo. pp. 452.

IN the Preface to the first edition of the above work, the author offers an apology for not attending to literary niceties, on the ground of want of time and the pressure of professional occupation during the preparation of the Lectures, together with a desire to have them made public while the impression occasioned by the delivery of them was yet fresh on the minds of those, for whose benefit in particular they were prepared. The excuse is perhaps reasonable enough, though we could have wished that there might have been no necessity for making it. The style of the Lectures is earnest

and even fervid, but occasionally tinged with exaggeration and over-straining for immediate effect, and with extravagance of metaphor sometimes approaching to caricature and sometimes to bombast. Coming from a member of the Faculty of a literary institution of some note, the work seems to deserve more attention in this respect, than if it were the production of a common professional man; as in this case the matter is usually more to be attended to than the manner, provided the latter does not obscure the former. Still, however, we think, that every one volunteering his remarks to the public, should use all reasonable care to clothe them in the best possible dress; and if he come without being particularly called for, haste is hardly to be admitted as an excuse for neglect of preparation. With these general remarks we pass to the substance of the work.

The great division of the subject is made into Four Parts. The First is Diet, which is treated of in five lectures. These embrace a consideration of the quantity of food proper to be taken for the most perfect preservation of life and health; and for the restoration of the latter when impaired by what are called nervous complaints; also of the qualities and consequent fitness or unfitness for use, consistently with health, of the various articles commonly employed amongst us for food and drink, with a diatribe on some articles of luxury or recreation, which properly belong to neither, as opium and tobacco. The proper times of taking food are also treated of. Various rules are laid down for the benefit of those who need them, and of all others; and the objections that may be made to them, are disposed of, sometimes by fair reasoning, and sometimes by arguments that savour a little of what, we believe, logicians call *ad hominem*. We are not confident however on that point; but they reminded us of Lord Peter's argument to convince Martin and Jack, that a brown crust was a leg of mutton. There are also held out to the cultivators of abstemiousness promises of length of days, glory, and honor, that appear somewhat like the *Houris* of Mahomet's paradise, destined with their charms to console true believers for the hard knocks they may get, in fighting to the end for the faith of the prophet. Finally, there are appeals to patriotism and religion, not so much we apprehend to confirm the arguments, as to wear the appearance of so doing, and by a sort of impressive authority to cause them



to sink deeper into yielding minds, and to be received with perhaps less of question than might otherwise be given to them.

Yet on the whole, the substance of these Lectures is good and judicious, and as a system of diet we should make less objection to it, than to others that we have seen ; so convinced are we, that among men of sedentary habits and literary pursuits, there are vastly more that suffer from excess and haste in eating and drinking, than from abstemiousness. The great fault is, that the system is pushed to excess, and confined, as appears to us, within needlessly narrow limits as to the qualities of food, or the different articles that may be made use of. To the quantity we should not object so much, thinking it to be generally sufficient, though somewhat more license may be allowed without harm to healthy persons, paying reasonable attention to exercise. It is evident from the author's doctrines, even if he did not assure us of the fact, that he is a dyspeptic himself, and he is a little too much inclined to regulate all other men's stomachs by the conscience of his own ; forgetting the power of habit over the human frame in a state of health, by which it is enabled, within certain limits, to accommodate itself to circumstances, so as after a while to bear with impunity, and even to profit by, things at first productive of inconvenience and uneasiness ; much more, things not really necessary, but yet grateful to it, provided no great excess be indulged in. He also seems to forget, that there are such things as idiosyncrasies, which will render a small fragment of a tenderly done egg productive of great distress and even absolute incapacity of digestion to a man who will manage with great ease and relish a hearty plateful of baked beans, pease-soup, green corn, or cucumbers. Of these idiosyncrasies, or peculiarities of digestive powers, there are many varieties ; few individuals are indeed absolutely subject to the same rules.

Among other arguments in his appeals to patriotism and religion, he urges this, that by restricting the expenses of food, cookery, &c., to what is merely necessary for the comfortable support of nature, great sums may be saved for the advancement of religious purposes, &c. Were this abstemiousness universally practised, as it ought to be if the rule be good, we fancy that the sources of superfluous revenue would be proportionally diminished ; and were the rule applied to

all other expenses, as consistency would seem to require, the world, if persuaded uniformly to adopt them, would be in much the same plight as the inhabitants of the perfect world seen by Asem the man-hater, in Goldsmith's apologue, which Professor Hitchcock may possibly find worth a re-perusal.

The Second great division of the subject is Regimen, to which two lectures are devoted. The first of these treats of exercise; the second, of air, cleanliness, clothing, sleep, manners, and influence of the imagination and passions upon health. The remarks upon these subjects are for the most part very correct and deserving of great attention, particularly those in the lecture on exercise. This is a thing of great importance, and greatly neglected in our literary seminaries and among persons of sedentary pursuits, and we are fully persuaded from our own observation, that this neglect is the cause of more mischief than any other. The author's rules for sleep are also good, though we are inclined to think that, in many situations, the notion of the advantage of very early rising is often a mistaken one. Where any deleterious miasm prevails, exposure to the damp air of the morning, before it has been warmed by the rays of the sun, is quite as likely to be productive of ill consequences, as exposure to the air of evening at the same distance from the time of the sun's setting; if there be any difference, we should think the evening air the safer of the two. In any place we doubt whether the first be better than the last, except merely from the energy of the system being recruited by sleep, and therefore more able to oppose the mischiefs.

In speaking of manners, the influence of passion, &c., we observe that the Professor renders a due tribute to the advantages to be derived from intercourse with virtuous and polished female society, while yet he very fervently deprecates the influence of love. Now we know of no way in which this, as he describes it, most pernicious mental disease is more apt to be contracted, than by the very intercourse that he recommends; with young men, many cases of it must be the almost necessary result of such intercourse. Here we think the Professor is rather too hard upon the subjects of his advice, and we doubt, not a little, the correctness of his doctrine as a general rule. Although it is in some respects desirable that a young man, whose prospects in life are yet

matters of uncertainty, should be exempt from ties that may shackle his freedom of pursuit, and clog his energy, yet we have known very many instances, where a virtuous and reciprocated affection has proved both a strong barrier against temptations, and a powerful incentive to industry and achievement.

Next to Regimen comes Employment, likewise the subject of a single lecture, containing some observations on the effects of different occupations upon health, upon the best mode of study, and the advantages of different kinds of recreation, and the like. Many of these observations and the general tenor of the whole are good ; though, still, parts of the lecture betray the same inclination for severe and ascetic discipline which we have before noticed, occasionally at variance with sound knowledge and true philosophy. Thus, he strongly insists upon the utility and necessity of studying for the most part in the posture of standing erect ; at the same time speaking of the advantages of grace and ease in bodily appearance. Now a habit of constantly standing is favorable neither to health nor to grace. Its consequences are stiffening of the ligaments and muscles, with retarded circulation of the fluids of the lower extremities ; the former rendering the motions awkward and ungraceful, and the latter disposing the limbs to swelling, varicose enlargement of the veins, &c., productive of troublesome and difficultly healed ulcerations from slight injuries of the skin, as medical men have abundant reason to know. The true philosophy of posture in study is, to vary the position so as to produce the greatest bodily ease and comfort, alternately employing and relaxing different sets of muscles, and giving all possible freedom of play to the vessels that carry on the circulation. Thus, with proper exercise and attention to erectness of gait in walking, all the different moving fibres and articulations of the frame will be preserved in due suppleness and power of tension and flexure, producing ease and grace of movement and deportment.

The author also goes through the usual form of decrying novels. Indiscriminate and profuse novel-reading is undoubtedly pernicious ; but to one who has to live by mingling with his fellow-men, and to whom a knowledge of human nature in all its varieties of character is of course useful if not absolutely necessary, we are inclined to think as much advantage may be

derived from perusing the pages of Scott, Edgeworth, and several others, as from poring over ascetic school-men, or bitter-tongued theologians, besides being infinitely better suited for the recreation of the mind. The concluding Lecture, making the Fourth Part, is devoted to Dyspepsy, treating principally of its effects upon the mind and the nervous sensibilities, and inculcating temperance in all things as the best means of preventing and remedying it. For the prevention it is good, and of great importance in the remedial treatment, though often requiring the aid of medicine to assist it by rectifying various disordered conditions of different organs.

We perceive by various allusions and remarks through the work, that Professor Hitchcock is a "laudator temporis acti," one of those, who, according to the boy's illustration, will have it, that the apples of Adam's time were wonderfully large. He keeps constantly referring to the achievements of former days, as if men two or three centuries back were vastly more temperate in eating and drinking than at present, and much more healthy. Now authentic accounts of the habits of those times fully show, that, among those who were able to suit their palate, much more gross and stimulating living, much more sinning against such rules of temperance as many of those given by him, prevailed, than at present, though with much less nicety and attention to real comfort; and unless our recollection of medical statistics sorely fails us, the prevalence and mortality of severe diseases have on the whole greatly diminished from those days to the present, partly in consequence of this very increase of nicety and attention to comfort. The more intellectual and refined state of society at present may indeed have substituted for some of those diseases less fatal, but yet harassing complaints; but on the whole we have little doubt that the balance is in favor of modern days, both as to health and to intellectual power and acquirements.

After so particular an examination of its contents and their value, we shall leave our readers to form for themselves a conclusion as to the general merits of the work before us; merely observing, that to us it seems to contain, in regard to its materials, much that is good, little or nothing that is injurious, but some things that are unnecessary. We fear that the author is a little *intemperate* in his zeal and strictness.

ART. IV. — *Elements of Chemistry in the Order of the Lectures given in Yale College.* By BENJAMIN SILLIMAN, Professor of Chemistry, Pharmacy, Mineralogy, and Geology. New Haven. Hezekiah Howe. 1830, 1831. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 518 and 696.

WE have long known the author of the work before us, as a zealous editor of a journal, devoted to science and arts. Our earliest recollections of him are associated with the journal of the late Dr. Bruce. We have never seen Mr. Silliman, though we have always looked forward to an introduction, as one of the pleasant things which time has still in his wallet for us. We are glad it is so. We can speak of his book uninfluenced by that delightful fascination, which, we are told, entwines itself around the hearts of those who remember his personal acquaintance. We have never troubled the world with our thoughts on any chemical subject. We are glad of it. We have thus, probably, escaped enumeration among the thousand and one, whose "golden opinions" Mr. Silliman has unintentionally bought, by kindly mentioning their names in his preface, text, or notes. We go therefore to the task of noticing this work free, unbiassed, unshackled, untrammelled, fettered by nothing, except that besetting sin of honest reviewers, a merciful spirit.

Our booksellers' shelves are already bending under their load of elementary works on chemistry, and we are very sorry to see that Mr. Silliman has added two ponderous octavos to the weight. We are sorry to see this; 1. On account of his own reputation. It will not be a gainer. 2. We are sorry to see this on account of the publisher. He will be a loser. 3. We are sorry to see this on account of the public. The public does not want it. Besides several foreign treatises on chemistry, of matchless merit, which have been republished here, we can count some dozen of native growth, good, bad, and indifferent. We have been actually flooded with Elements, Introductions, Outlines, and First Lines, Grammars, and Rudiments, and Compendiums of chemistry, and borne down to earth by some of higher pretensions. There is no famine in the land. We need not "go down to Egypt to buy corn." Indeed our author himself seems to have been fully of our opinion. He tells us that for more than twenty years Henry's "Elements" was his text-

book ; and that he ceased to use it, because its increased size rendered it no longer cheap enough to be here reprinted. It is quite unfortunate, that, while Mr. Silliman was thus stating his reasons for abandoning Henry, the Philadelphia publisher should come out with his eleventh edition, neither larger nor dearer than the work of Professor Silliman. However, if Henry had not been again republished among us, there is no reason for the appearance of this new work. After Henry, Mr. Silliman recommended Dr. Webster's "Manual on Brande's basis." "Few works," he says, "contain so much important information ;" an opinion, honestly and sincerely expressed, and in which we fully concur. We are, therefore, at a loss to divine what cause could have moved the author to publish these Elements. It is to be found, perhaps, in the fact, that it has been a favorite project ; for Mr. Silliman says, "that the materials for the work have been gradually accumulating since 1802 ;" though he informs us, in an extraordinary explanatory notice of his work, published in his Journal, on the eve of the appearance of the second volume, "that his attention was first called to the subject, by a vote of his classes in 1815." "Opus triginti annorum !" as an old compiler of a Hebrew Lexicon printed on his title-page. We always look with admiration and reverence upon this devotion to one thing, and we bestow both on the volumes before us, because they bear evidence of having been begun, at least, in 1802. During the period which has elapsed since that date, Mr. Silliman has read, heard, and seen more of chemistry than falls to the lot of most men. The list of works, therefore, to which he refers, is sufficiently extensive to convince us of his industry, while it leaves no very favorable impressions of his discrimination. Besides the great stock orators of chemistry, for the last fifty years, the author quotes Parkes and Gray, particularly where the arts are concerned. No man at all conversant with practical chemistry would think of referring to Parkes, excepting Frederick Accum, the most arrant of all chemical book-makers, whom England ever produced. We know that many of his practical details are mere creatures of his own creation. He is abundantly shallow in all things ; though he does include among the half-page of his titles "Master of Arts in Yale College, Connecticut." Gray hurried his work into the world after the appearance of a few volumes of the "Dic-

tionnaire Technologique," a new spring, which he opened to give freshness to his crudities. We merely mention the thing to express our surprise, that Mr. Silliman did not himself draw from that immense store-house, the "Technological Dictionary" now publishing in France. Neither this, nor that still more valuable work of Dumas, "*Chimie appliquée aux Arts*," — the two first volumes of which have long since reached our shores, — nor Chevreul, "*Leçons de Chimie, appliquée à la Teinture*," is noticed. These pure and gushing fountains of chemical information are unopened and unheeded, whilst the spurious works of Gay-Lussac are referred to with confidence. To be sure, the author tells us, a year afterwards, that he did not know that he was so doing; but this is no apology for a man, certainly the focus of chemical information at home, and who is more known abroad, than any other American chemical writer. The editor of a scientific journal ought to be so far conversant with the chemical literature of France, as to know whether Gay-Lussac had ever authorized the publication of the work, pretending to be his "*Cours*." We are greatly surprised that no reference is made to some of the latest and best works on chemistry, not only of France but of Germany, not the least among nations which have laid deep and for ever the foundations of modern analysis.

Our business is however with the work as it is, and not as it should be. What are the peculiar claims of Mr. Silliman's "*Elements*"? This is the question which interests the public. "*Its peculiarities*," as stated by the author, "*are in its arrangement*." He has thought proper to deviate from some others; though without any good reason, from one of his idols, Dr. Murray, whose arrangement he thinks "*perhaps the best that can be devised*." Every teacher must be his own judge of the arrangement fittest for conveying his knowledge to others. It is of little consequence to an instructor, whether the text-book of another is arranged in that order which he thinks best for public instruction. He may always select such portions as are suited to his purpose; and we have examples of some chemical dictionaries, with instructions for converting the *alphabetical* into a *systematic* order of study. If a man will *publish* his lectures, he is bound to follow that order, which presents the science in the most improved, systematic, and severely logical form. The only "*peculiarities in*" Mr. Silliman's "*arrangement*" are, that the alkalies and

earths are presented before the metals; and galvanism, although sketched in the beginning, is finished at the close of the work." We expected from the repeated allusions to "galvanism in the beginning," that we should find a tolerable account of that power; at least enough of it to render intelligible common operations connected with it, and to guide us in applications of this branch of science to some of the daily operations of practical chemistry. The "sketch" however occupies about a page only. It is the most meagre and bald relation of certain facts, which we have ever met with in the whole course of our reading. We protest against this off-hand treatment of galvanism and electricity; sciences so important in their chemical relations, and so intimately connected with many practical processes and details in the subsequent parts of the work, and in the daily operations of art. The subject has been entirely swept out from some American editions of foreign works, an act which should have received its just castigation from our author's hands. But with this renewed sanction of his own example, we fear that he attaches much less importance to the general principles of science than a learned Professor should. He has said enough, however, to have rendered an arrangement of his work, founded on the polar relations of bodies, perfectly intelligible; and we are the more surprised therefore, that he did not adopt it. We do not advocate the introduction of the "ignitions, and deflagrations, and muscular shocks" in any part of a strictly chemical course. The presentation of such galvanic effects at the end of this work, serves only to increase its bulk. Their introduction at the end of a course of lectures, serves no other purpose except "terminating a long course of demonstrations and reasoning, with the most brilliant finish that can be desired."

As for the other "peculiarities" of arrangement, he enjoys them in common with a host of writers and makers of books who lived before the brighter days of modern chemistry. There can be certainly no reason why one who remembers the chemistry of 1802, should "break up the class of alkalis," or notice chlorine, iodine, and bromine, till after the other simple non-metallic substances and inflammables are mentioned. The arrangement of Mr. Silliman, though very unphilosophical, may be very well suited for the purpose of instruction. Indeed we never knew



one decidedly bad in chemistry ; because there is no difficulty, with a tolerable apparatus, in " finding our way into the mind of the pupil, and fixing there the knowledge we wish to impart," provided the " brilliancy " of the experiment is not so " striking " as to obscure the facts to be illustrated. If the arrangement of the simple substances by Mr. Silliman is unphilosophical, the order in which he states the facts, relating to the individual substances themselves, is frequently confused, and often decidedly bad. But we trust we have said enough to convince our readers, that Mr. Silliman's Elements have no particular claims on our attention, by reason of the " peculiar arrangement." We trust, too, that they are equally satisfied, that the public did not want this new offering which Mr. Silliman has laid at the foot of that edifice, which he has contributed to erect. We are sorry to see this work, on account of the fame of the author. We shall not go minutely into its details, but, glancing our eye over the work, select a few of such portions as indicate an imperfect knowledge of the subject. We would repeat at the outset an observation of his, which he applied to a competitor in the race of book-making, and to a citizen of his own state. " In chemistry, the *audivi* may give a man a good many good ideas, useful to himself ; the *vidi* will still more enlarge his knowledge ; but it is only the *feci* which qualifies him to instruct others."

Our remarks will be chiefly confined to the "*feci*," because here it is that the peculiar qualifications of a chemical instructor ought to break forth and illuminate the path of his pupils. *Light*, the first section of the work before us, is abundantly extended for an elementary work on chemistry. *Heat* occupies the next section. The law of expansion by heat, and contraction by cold, is quite hastily passed over. The facts are generally understood. But in stating the exceptions to the rule, instead of taking water for his first illustrations, Mr. Silliman alludes to some of the metals of which the student probably never heard. Without some explanation more than we find in the book, beginners will not readily understand the expansion of metals by cooling. We understand perfectly what the author means ; but he has stated the fact broadly, as all writers have, except the practical Aikins. Many a graduate, both of Yale College and Harvard College, has been laughed at by the iron-founder

and pattern-maker, for stating, what in fact he had been taught, as in the volumes before us, that iron expands in cooling. They smile when they are told so, because they know that unless their pattern is made larger than the thing wanted, the casting will be too small. The truth is, that the exceptions of water and some metals to the law of contraction by cooling, are really no exceptions. All metals have their melting point, which, like the freezing point of water, is fixed and invariable; the only point at which the thermometer constantly, and under all circumstances, shows the same temperature. Whenever water or metals arrive at this fixed point they expand, not because they are exceptions to the common rule, but because at this point, their particles enter into new arrangements by which they occupy greater space; they crystallize, as Mr. Silliman says of water. Water, it is well known, may be cooled below its freezing point, and yet be fluid. So likewise many (we are inclined to believe all) metals may be cooled below their melting point and yet be fluid. Bismuth may be cooled thus eight degrees below, and tin, four degrees below, their melting points. So of antimony; so of iron. Yet the moment these fluid metals set or harden, their temperature rises, and for an instant they expand, simply because their particles have entered into new arrangements. The expansion and rise of temperature are but momentary; the ore immediately falls, and the dimensions contract. Now it is this momentary expansion of iron, this instantaneous and temporary enlargement, which gives the sharp and delicate impressions to its castings. But we find nothing in Mr. Silliman which would lead us to suppose any thing else, but a permanent expansion of some metals by cooling; a paradox not easily believed, that it should expand at all by this process. There is a permanent expansion of some metals, on which Mr. Silliman is unaccountably silent. We refer to the permanent extension of zinc and lead by expansion. These metals, and probably others, never regain their original dimensions by contraction. These are important facts, when we consider the frequent use of leaden pipes for conveying steam. Neither is any allusion made by Mr. Silliman to the thermometer of Breguet, one of the most delicate of all instruments for illustrating the doctrines of expansion.

There is a question relating to this subject, inserted in a

note. It betrays such a want of acquaintance with the whole law, as applied to water, that we believe it must be attributed to one of those representatives of the "Prince of the power of the air," commonly buzzing about the press. The ignorance is therefore very pardonable; and his curiosity respecting a fact, which the temperature of his own regions could probably never permit him to witness, is altogether very praiseworthy.

"Anchor ice—is it formed on the bottom of running streams; on account of the conducting power of the stones?" We again repeat, that Mr. Silliman cannot have inserted this question. He has travelled far and wide, both at home and abroad; and his curiosity is ever alive on such subjects. If anchor ice is owing to such a cause as the question suggests, we ought always to find it, whereas it is of rare occurrence. Besides, if the stones differ in temperature from the water, it is probably rather on the ascending side of the scale; they are rather warmer than colder than the water. We allow, however, that they may be colder. What then? Why, if we have learnt any thing about this affair from Mr. Silliman, it is, that the moment the water becomes colder than forty degrees, its density alters, it becomes lighter; and consequently, if the stones cool it, the particles cut their cables, slip their anchors at the bottom, and float at the top of the stream. The effect of this cooling power of the stones would be, in the formation of anchor ice, very like a good fire under the bed of the river. If Mr. Silliman had any part or lot in this question, his habits of observation and inquiry are much less severe than we have always supposed. We state then, for the information of the person who penned the query, that this anchor ice forms not on the stones only at the bottom, but on the wooden dam a few feet or inches under the surface of the water. It never forms after the streams are frozen over, nor in calm, still weather. Every windy, cold night the mill-owner is like a wave-tossed mariner; he knows that the gale is full of danger to his wheels, and he rushes to his works by dawn. Lo! every dam below him has been raised by the formation of anchor ice; and the waters, flowing backwards, are ready almost to bear his machinery away on their bosom. He looks at his own dam;—the water is thickening and gathering, and anchor ice is forming on its top, and the lands above and around him are flooded, till the mass of wa-

ters at last sweeps by in torrents, and mill and dam are borne onwards and downwards with one tremendous crash. His fears had pictured the scene which he now beholds; for he knows that the violent agitation of the waters by the gale, helps to cool down the whole mass to thirty-two degrees, and then he is confident that anchor ice will form. We have frequent illustrations of the truth of our explanation of the formation of anchor ice. Let your tumbler stand full of water in a very cold chamber all night, clap your tooth-brush into it in the morning, and you will see anchor ice form on it immediately. We merely add, that thousands have performed the experiment with success, unconscious of its connexion with the subject contained in a Note in Silliman's "*Elements*," vol. i. p. 50.

Our limits compel us to pass over some other things, worthy of notice, in the section on Heat. Nor can we spend more time on Attraction, than merely to say, that it is quite too extended for an elementary chemical work. We hasten to the section on Affinity, the chemist's legitimate ground. We are truly delighted that Mr. Silliman has here followed the example of Turner in separating the facts of definite proportions from the theory of atoms. It is remarkable, that almost all, we may say all writers, before Turner, blended these separate and distinct subjects, and left on clear and well ordered minds the impression, that definite proportion was something indefinitely connected with the atomic theory. Most of the common treatises on chemistry rather darken our ideas, by mystifying the atomic theory. Not so Mr. Turner. He comes to the subject with ideas and statements so clear, that it is impossible to read his account of this matter, without being fully convinced that the doctrine of definite proportion is a series of undeniable and established facts, and, that the atomic theory accounts for these facts, in the most beautiful, philosophical, and perfectly satisfactory manner. But this is not the only praise of Turner. He has unfolded all those mysteries which have so long astounded Berzelius; and shown that they are in perfect accordance with the doctrine he so admirably illustrates, and are just what we should anticipate. While then we are glad that Professor Silliman has followed such an illustrious example, in separating facts from theory, we express our unfeigned regret, that he has not made some approach to that inimitable condensation and

elucidation of these subjects, which characterize the Professor of the London University. There is not, in the whole compass of English chemical literature, any chapter on Affinity comparable to Dr. Turner's, and Mr. Silliman would have honored himself by transferring it to his own pages unaltered. Where Turner illustrates, and thus leaves clearly and distinctly on our minds the impression of the fact that bodies combine in multiple, or submultiple, proportions, Mr. Silliman states a law, printed in small capitals, which reminds us of the weary days when we first turned our attention to this subject. Without the explanation which follows, we never should suspect that the law of multiples was contained in the sentence. Without the illustration from Dr. Turner, so judiciously introduced, it would be an unfathomable mystery. Perhaps we are very obtuse. The riddles of Berzelius, to which we have alluded, are deemed worthy a place in a page of text; Dr. Turner's explanation is crowded into a note. We are highly gratified to find it even there.

We must leave then the farther consideration of the General Powers or Agents concerned in chemical changes. Let us turn our attention to some facts stated, either in confirmation of the principles there advanced, or under the head of the individual substances. In illustrating the effects of quantity on affinity the author states, (Volume i. p. 155.) "Muriate of soda 2, oxide of lead 1, there is no effect in twenty-four hours; but with muriate of soda 1, and oxide of lead 3 or 4, decomposition follows in twenty-four hours, and muriate of lead is formed, and soda or its subcarbonate evolved; this fact is the foundation of the manufacture of soda from common salt." There are two mistakes here, one as to the quantity and time of decomposition, and one respecting the application of the principle. Let the Professor take salt 2, litharge 1; triturate them in a mortar, gradually moistening them with a little warm water, and in less than an hour the decomposition is complete, and a perfectly white homogeneous paste of muriate of lead is formed. "*Feci.*" The effect is still better produced by previously dissolving the salt in warm water. But be careful not to evolve subcarbonate of soda, which decomposes the muriate of lead, while the caustic soda will not. This decomposition never was the foundation of making soda from common salt, and cannot be, as any one will readily perceive, when he reflects on the immense con-

sumption of soda, and the very little demand for fused muriate of lead under the name of patent yellow. This soda process was one among the many reported to the French Directory, and which, like all the others except "No. 8," which Mr. Silliman relates in his Second Volume, page 51, are now entirely abandoned.

Our readers would have no patience with us, were we to point out the numerous errors in these volumes, relating to the application of chemistry to the arts. The sulphuric acid process, — which he quotes from Parkes, — has long ago been given up, as Mr. Silliman will find in Gray. The objection to the use of iron cylinders in making nitric acid is of no consequence to one who understands what ought to have been explained under galvanism, or thermo-electricity. We obtain as pure nitric acid in iron as in earthen vessels. If we make a good article, strong nitric acid, the iron is hardly attacked by it, as it distils over concentrated. If we make common aqua fortis, we have only to heat to redness our apparatus. Our author seems not to be aware of the modifications produced by heat in the electrical relations of iron. For Becquerel has established the fact, that the body which is negative with cold iron, becomes positive in contact with iron heated to redness. The theory of the formation of sulphuric acid is untenable, as Mr. Silliman may find by making the experiment himself, "*feci*;" or by consulting the papers of Gay-Lussac. Under the article "Chloride of Lime," no caution is given respecting the heat produced by the combination between the lime and chlorine, which materially affects the product. We refer Mr. Silliman to Morin's Memoir, (*Ann. de Chim. et Phys.*, *Fevrier*, 1828.) Under "Muriate of Tin," we are directed to keep some metallic tin, in the solution, to preserve the state of proto-muriate. The effect of this is to deoxydate the tin already in solution, and it separates in metallic crystals, often four inches long, "*feci*"; and the fact was long ago noticed by Bucholz.

Truth compels us to say, that in every thing relating to chemical arts, in this work, there is a lamentable deficiency of correct information. The "*audi vi*" is in almost infinite proportion to the "*feci*." We have been compelled to notice these things, because it has been stated, that the practical facts in this work are of a superior character, and the author himself attaches no small importance to them.

We repeat, therefore, that this work does Mr. Silliman no credit. An extended syllabus of his course would have answered every purpose for those for whom the work professes to be specially designed. We have, therefore, only to give our parting advice to the author, and discharge our conscience. "The attempt has been made," says Professor Silliman, "to unite copiousness with condensation." In the first, there has been admirable success; in the last a total failure. We therefore advise him; 1. To strike out the whole Introductory Lecture, which he has favored the public with on another occasion, and all the Notes; 2. To omit the Practical Questions, and Rules of Philosophizing; 3. To give up the pictures. We have them in Dr. Hare's "Compendium," where they rightly belong, and in his "Descriptive Catalogue"; and lastly, in Mr. Silliman's "Journal." This fourth impression gives them, therefore, rather an indistinct and time-worn face, and they illustrate nothing which the text has not already explained; 4. To refer his readers to Rose, for analysis, and to advise Mr. Shepherd to publish his Essay by itself. It does him some credit. If, however, our advice is not kindly taken, we must throw the author on himself. He states among other "peculiarities" of his book, that the most important parts are printed "in small capitals and italics," "that they may for the most part be read through in connexion, with the omission of the other parts, and thus a smaller book is comprised within a larger." Would that this were the only great book containing a little one. We hope, therefore, that if ever a second edition is called for, Mr. Silliman will favor us with the "smaller book."

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**ART. V.—Autobiography of SIR WALTER SCOTT, BART.**  
Philadelphia. Carey & Lea. 1831. 12mo. pp. 288.

THIS volume is composed of several autobiographical notices which Sir Walter has furnished, amounting to 137 pages, and an Appendix of 151 pages, put in for the purpose of making up a sizable and salable book. All this comes forth under the attractive title of the "Autobiography of Sir Walter Scott." If the book related to any other man, we should quarrel with "the trade" for enticing the unwary purchaser to buy goods by a false invoice. But every thing

professing to detail circumstances connected with the mode of life and illustrating the character of the distinguished Baronet, has an interest so deep and intrinsic, that we feel delighted with scanty supplies for the gratification of our good-natured curiosity. The contents of the book, moreover, though not strictly what they purport to be, claim our attention as being, with two or three unimportant exceptions, from Sir Walter's own most prolific pen. "The Autobiography" is one of the pleasantest specimens of that kind of composition that we have ever met. We remember nothing except the *Dichtung und Wahrheit* of Goëthe, which is at all comparable to it. The style is easy and flowing, and the author has managed that most difficult of literary enterprises, the telling of his own story, with admirable adroitness and success. He has steered through the happy medium, leaving excessive egotism on one side, and excessive reserve at an equal distance on the other. The language is pure, simple, and appropriate. The reader of the "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire" must have been struck with the Roman stateliness of style, in which the illustrious author narrates his own, very simple and unimposing adventures. The ill success of his passion for the clergyman's daughter is told in strains as solemn, in periods as balanced and stately, as the defeat of an imperial army, or the invasion of Rome by the barbarians of the North. Sir Walter's story is just the opposite, and of course vastly superior, in its general air and style.

The character of this most noble writer is worthy to be held in everlasting remembrance. His benevolence, his good humor, his practical sense and sound philosophy, blended with an imagination as powerful and varied as Shakspeare's, a pure taste, and a spotless morality, have made the character of Sir Walter as delightful in the contemplation, as it is rare and difficult in the attainment. The picture of this character, drawn with skill and beauty, in the Autobiography, gives us a new, or rather a more distinct view of the author, than we had been able to form for ourselves before. Sir Walter's unrivalled powers as a novelist have been too often the theme of eulogy, to be spoken of in this brief notice; but we cannot refrain from remarking, that the calmness and conscious strength, manifested in all his works, form a singular contrast to the stormy eloquence, which



generally passes for fine writing, in the novels of his successors and imitators. Take, for instance, *any* descriptive chapter, from *any* one of the Waverley novels, and compare it with the best of "Pelham," "The Disowned," or *any* of that false and glittering school. The one is immortal, for it is founded on nature; the other is the mere ephemeral frothiness, which the first breath of a deliberate public opinion will dissipate for ever. The versatility of Sir Walter's genius is no where more pleasingly displayed than in these charming pages, which are written with such singular appropriateness, that the most fastidious critic cannot find a fault. The candor with which he speaks of his less fortunate contemporaries, and the good nature with which he acknowledges his obligations to some of them, are no less an honor to his head than to his heart. The public will duly appreciate these traits, forming, as they do, so marked a distinction from the jealousies and unworthy broils that have too often disgraced the literary character. The following remarks we venture to quote, because of their practical application to the condition of every man who aspires to the honors and subjects himself to the tribulations of authorship.

"In the first place, upon considering the lives and fortunes of persons who had given themselves up to literature, or to the task of pleasing the public, it seemed to me, that the circumstances which chiefly affected their happiness and character, were those from which Horace has bestowed upon authors the epithet of the Irritable Race. It requires no depth of philosophic reflection to perceive, that the petty warfare of Pope with the Dunces of his period, could not have been carried on without his suffering the most acute torture, such as a man must endure from mosquitos, by whose stings he suffers agony, although he can crush them in his grasp by myriads. Nor is it necessary to call to memory the many humiliating instances in which men of the greatest genius have, to avenge some pitiful quarrel, made themselves ridiculous during their lives, to become the still more degraded objects of pity to future times.

"Upon the whole, as I had no pretension to the genius of the distinguished persons who had fallen into such errors, I concluded there could be no occasion for imitating them in these mistakes, or what I considered such; and in adopting literary pursuits as the principal occupation of my future life, I resolved, if possible, to avoid those *weaknesses of temper* which seemed to have most easily beset my more celebrated predecessors.

"With this view, it was my first resolution to keep as far as was in my power abreast of society, continuing to maintain my place in general company, without yielding to the very natural temptation of narrowing myself to what is called literary society. By doing so, I imagined I should escape the besetting sin of listening to language which, from one motive or other, ascribes an undue degree of consequence to literary pursuits, as if they were indeed the business, rather than the amusement of life. The opposite course can only be compared to the injudicious conduct of one who pampers himself with cordial and luscious draughts, until he is unable to endure wholesome bit-  
ters. Like Gil Blas, therefore, I resolved to stick by the society of my *compatriots*, instead of seeking that of a more literary cast, and to maintain my general interest in what was going on around me, reserving the man of letters for the desk and library."

The papers in the Appendix, which form the greater part of the volume, are mostly pleasant disquisitions on subjects of antiquarian lore, with which Sir Walter is so familiar. They are agreeably diversified with interesting anecdotes, so that the attention of the reader never wearies. "*Nihil tetigit quod non ornavit.*" On the whole, Sir Walter must be allowed to stand at the head of that comparatively small class of authors, who understand *how to write* as well as *what to write*.

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ART. VI. — *Lectures on Christian Theology*; by GEORGE CHRISTIAN KNAPP. Translated by LEONARD WOODS, Jun., Abbot Resident at the Theological Seminary in Andover, Massachusetts. In 2 vols. Vol. I. New York. G. & C. & H. Carvill. 1831. 8vo. pp. 599.

THIS is a course of "Lectures on Christian Doctrines conformed to the System of the Evangelical Church," as is announced on the original title-page. "Evangelical" here means plainly "Lutheran," though it is often, if not usually, the appellation of the whole Protestant Church, as distinguished from the Catholic. It is usual, perhaps necessary, for the lecturer on this subject at the German universities to follow the system of religion adopted by the state; even though it be only to point out its errors, or to disguise it in

his own philosophical notions ; which last is more frequently the case. Here, however, we have no such abstruse and labored philosophical system, but a plain, honest, and clear defence of the Lutheran doctrines.

Dr. Knapp is the editor of the well-known edition of the New Testament which bears his name. His bent was to philological research, and the character of his mind was simple and direct. This is seen in the work before us. His plan is (according to the Preface of the German editor) to draw the doctrines directly from the Scriptures, to explain them and show their practical tendency, and to trace their history, especially in later times. This is done faithfully and with much learning ; though of course the Scriptures are understood according to the peculiar views of the author, which some may think a little old-fashioned. His notion of Inspiration is that it was "an extraordinary divine influence, by which the teachers of religion were instructed what and how they should write and speak, while discharging the duties of their office." (pp. 108, 109.)

He remarks, that

"Our Saviour promised his disciples an extraordinary divine influence to attend them constantly and secure them against error, and that when they spoke under this divine impulse, it would not be they who spoke, but the Holy Spirit."

"Now," he continues, "if the Apostles were assisted in this manner in their discourses which were merely oral, and of course of a very temporary and limited advantage, how much more should they be assisted in their written instructions, which were destined to exert a more lasting and extended influence!" p. 110.

He supposes that the Holy Spirit "revealed to the Apostles many things of which Christ had not spoken, (John xvi, 12-15), reminded them of all that Christ had taught them in order that they might be secure from mistake in their teaching even with respect to knowledge which they might have acquired in the unaided use of their own faculties ; and himself instructed them in every thing necessary for the discharge of the duties of their office (John xiv, 26) ; that he revealed to them future events (John xvi, 13) ; endowed them, when necessary, with miraculous powers (Mark xvi, 17) ; corrected their mistakes and imparted to them new instructions when called for (John xvi, 12, xiv, 26.) So

that whatever the Apostles taught, may be regarded as coming from God." p. 111.

"These promises of special divine assistance were not, indeed, originally made to Mark and Luke, who were not Apostles. But each of them was the disciple and assistant of an Apostle. Their writings, therefore, being either dictated or sanctioned by inspired Apostles must be regarded as possessing divine authority." p. 111.

Of the Old Testament he says, "The prophets themselves acknowledged that whatever they taught, whether by speaking or writing, was dictated to them by God, or the Divine Spirit, and was published by his command," (p. 114;) and he considers all the historical books as the productions of prophets (p. 115.)

Dr. Knapp's views of the Scriptures were such as tended to class him with the more orthodox German divines; and therefore we are disposed to give little credit to the insinuations which have been made, that other considerations than those of conscience had a share in the change which took place in his views after he first wrote these Lectures. Unfortunately for him, however, (at least so far as any have hence taken occasion to charge him with interested motives) this change occurred nearly at the time of an edict published by the Prussian government in reference to the new and bold, and certainly dangerous opinions of Bahrds and others. The points on which he grew more orthodox are stated, in the Preface of the German editor, to be the doctrine of the Trinity, the doctrine of angels, the demoniacal possessions in the New Testament, the prophecies in the Old Testament, and the duration of future punishment.

Dr. Knapp died at Halle in the year 1825. The Lectures which we have here noticed, were delivered for the first time in the year 1789, and repeated with the alterations above mentioned until 1810, when they were read for the last time at the particular request of the students. We notice here a slight inaccuracy, or obscurity in the Translator's Preface, where he gives us to understand (page xxi.) that Dr. Knapp continued to read these Lectures till shortly before his death. This does not agree with page xvii of the original, where a distinction is to be made between the Lectures on Christian Doctrines and those on Biblical Theology, which last were read for many years after the first were laid aside. The fact

is of no moment excepting to show the true date of the Lectures, and, in a degree, the value which the author himself put upon them. With characteristic modesty he says of them also in notes written during his last illness ; " In the Lectures on Christian Doctrines there are perhaps some passages which may still be of use." From which opinion we think no one who reads these Lectures will dissent, however they may differ from the author in his theological views.

The translation is very fair. We notice, however, some inaccuracies ; such as, page 425, tenth line from the bottom, where the obscurity occasioned by the substitution of the word *circumstances* for *circumstance* led us to refer to the original. We apprehend the author's meaning to be, " The immediate occasion under Providence of more fully developing the doctrine concerning angels was this." There is certainly some inaccuracy of expression here even in the original ; but as it stands in the translation, we are led to look for an enumeration of several circumstances, which we do not find.

Some new words, too, are introduced into the English Translation, which we hold to be impolitic in a translator ; as readers will be very prone to attribute that to ignorance, or at best to negligence or accident, which in another place might have passed for philological invention. Such instances are, page 43, " rubrick," by which the translator does not mean " a direction printed in red ink in a prayer-book or book of law," but " a division," and which, though well understood by a German, conveys no meaning, or a false one, to a mere English reader ; page 61, " the institute of Moses" for " the institution of Moses" ; and, page 444, we read that though the teachers of the Christian church forbade the actual worship of the angels, they permitted " a civil homage to be paid them" ; which might be supposed to mean a courteous reverence thought to be due to them. Referring to the original, we found the meaning to be, that the honor paid the angels was to be considered not a religious but a civil duty, a distinction sufficiently obscure at the best ; and we do not wonder that the good Catholics thought it the shortest as well as safest way to honor the angels to the best of their ability, without troubling their consciences farther about the matter.

On the whole, for so dry a thing as a translation of a dry German book has a right to be, it flows very smoothly ; and

no one who knows by experience the difficulties of such an undertaking, will be disposed to deny the merit of the translator.

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ART. VII. — *Poem, delivered before the Society of United Brothers at Brown University, on the Day preceding Commencement, September 6, 1831. With other Poems.*  
By N. P. WILLIS. New York. J. & J. Harper. 1831.  
8vo. pp. 76.

MR. WILLIS began his poetical career at an early age, and soon became deservedly popular. It was a new thing to hear such beautiful warbling from the cloisters of a college; and the listeners were enchanted by so young a voice, tuned to subjects so holy. There was a singular tone of grace and sweetness in his Scriptural sketches, and of force and truth in some of his other occasional pieces, — the “Burial of Arnold,” for example, — which won the ear and heart of all, and allowed no one to doubt that here was one to whom nature had given the power and made the offer of future distinction. We know not how it has happened that his improvement has not kept the promise of his beginning; but, in sober fact, the sweet pieces which he wrote at college remain unsurpassed, if not unequalled, by what he has done in maturer life. It is not our business to account for this; we have only to regret the fact. We have still the same vividness of minute description, truth and purity of sentiment, gentle and tasteful felicity of expression, which first attracted regard, and which we hoped he never would lose; and the same mannerism and petty affectation, which we trusted experience would remove. We do not find that his powers have expanded with their maturity, or that they have gained any wider capacity for high tasks, such as should be laid upon the riper shoulders of the poet. It is pleasant, indeed, to hear him touch his harp just as he did when we first heard him; but we should be better pleased if we could find that he had added to his power over its chords, and that he was drawing from them, with a bolder and more masculine hand, a more varied and enterprising accompaniment.

We fear that all readers will feel as we do, that the present volume adds nothing to its author's reputation. Several

of the pieces have been printed before; but we think that none of them will be accounted among his best, though the two Scriptural pieces have touches which remind us favorably of his happiest days. Of the longest poem, that delivered before a literary society of Brown University, we hardly know what to say. If we dared, we would say that we do not understand it. It probably has a design; but there is such a mist, either upon it or upon our minds, that we have tried to penetrate it in vain. We have felt in reading it just as we have done in looking down from Pine Orchard in the morning upon the vast country extended below, covered with beautiful wreaths and waving mountains of vapor on which the sun lay brightly; we knew that there were cities and rivers and rich plains and fine hills beneath, but they were hidden under the mist;—here and there only peeped through a hill-summit or a tall tree, like the tops of the tallest thoughts which struggle up through the fair fog of Mr. Willis's blank verse. We get glimpses of noble sentiments and fine religious philosophy, and are left only to wish that the whole prospect were cleared up, so that we might discern it plainly. As it is, it seems to us, in spite of its beauties, to have been eminently unsuited to the occasion and purpose for which it was prepared; and this, not only because of the effort of mind required to comprehend its purpose, but because also of the measure. It is difficult to give satisfaction in the recitation of a poem, even when the hearer's ear is assisted and bribed by the melody of rhyme. Without that aid, he is likely to cry out in the words of Pope,

“It is not poetry, but prose run mad.”

“The Leper” is a more successful poem. It is truly beautiful. So is “The Healing of the Daughter of Jairus,” and, “The Wife's Appeal.” “Parrhasius” pleases us much less, and also “The Dying Alchemist.” But they both have touches of great felicity. Thus, what can be finer in its kind than the picture with which “Parrhasius” opens.

“There stood an unsold captive in the mart,  
A gray-haired and majestic old man,  
Chained to a pillar. It was almost night,  
And the last seller from his place had gone,  
And not a sound was heard but of a dog  
Craunching beneath the stall a refuse bone,

Or the dull echo from the pavement rung  
*As the faint captive changed his weary feet."* p. 34.

There are many of these happy sketches in the book. Here is another, which closes the description of the Italian scholar reading.

" Asleep  
 Upon the carpet couched a graceful hound  
 Of a rare breed ; and as his master gave  
 A murmur of delight at some sweet line,  
 He raised his slender head, and kept his eye  
 Upon him till the pleasant smile had passed  
 From his mild lips, and then he slept again." p. 43.

The following passage closes with another example.

" Freshly the cool breath of the coming eve  
 Stole through the lattice, and the dying girl  
 Felt it upon her forehead. She had lain  
 Since the hot noontide in a breathless trance,  
 Her thin pale fingers clasped within the hand  
 Of the heart-broken Ruler, and her breast,  
 Like the dead marble, white and motionless.  
 The shadow of a leaf lay on her lips,  
 And as it stirred with the awakening wind,  
 The dark lids lifted from her languid eyes,  
 And her slight fingers moved, and heavily  
 She turned upon her pillow. He was there —  
 The same loved, tireless watcher, and she looked  
 Into his face, until her sight grew dim  
 With the fast-filling tears, and, with a sigh  
 Of tremulous weakness murmuring his name,  
 She gently drew his hand upon her lips,  
 And kissed it as she wept. The old man sunk  
 Upon his knees, and in the drapery  
 Of the rich curtains buried up his face —  
 And when the twilight fell, the silken folds  
 Stirr'd with his prayer, but the slight hand he held  
 Had ceased its pressure, and he could not hear  
 In the dead, utter silence, that a breath  
 Came through her nostrils, and her temples gave  
 To his nice touch no pulse, and at her mouth  
 He held the lightest curl that on her neck  
 Lay with a mocking beauty, and his gaze  
 Ached with its deathly stillness." pp. 65, 66.

There is great beauty in this portrait of the Saviour.



“On a rock,  
 With the broad moonlight falling on his brow,  
 He stood and taught the people. At his feet  
 Lay his small scrip, and pilgrim's scallop-shell,  
 And staff, for they had waited by the sea  
 Till he came o'er from Gadarene, and prayed  
 For his wont teachings as he came to land.  
 His hair was parted meekly on his brow,  
 And the long curls from off his shoulders fell  
 As he leaned forward earnestly, and still  
 The same calm cadence, passionless and deep,  
 And in his looks the same mild majesty,  
 And in his mien the sadness mixed with power,  
 Filled them with love and wonder.” pp. 66, 67.

These are specimens of the manner in which Mr. Willis certainly excels; and when we think of what he has done and is capable of doing in this way, we cannot help saying that there are but two things which can prevent him from taking a permanent place among the writers of his country; namely, indolence and affectation. A lecture on indolence it is not necessary to deliver at the present time, nor to prove that it must be an inevitable barrier to fame. But respecting affectation we must be allowed to add a few words, both for the sake of the author himself, and for the sake of other young bards who may be led astray, as all young people are exposed to be, by the same false glitter which has beguiled him. If we were asked to name in one word what is the source of the blemishes which are so obvious in his verses, and which detract so unfortunately from their charms, we should say unhesitatingly, it is affectation. When he is natural and simple, he is beautiful and touching; when he tries to be better than this, and becomes affected, he displeases. And we are sorry to observe, that this blemish is so frequent, — sometimes tainting the whole conception of a piece, and often directing to quaintness and effeminacy in the choice of words.

“He was born  
 Taller than he might walk beneath the stars.”

“Orators  
 Of times gone by that made them.”

“It is thy life and mine! —  
 Thou in thyself, and I in thee, *misprison*  
 Gifts like a circle of bright stars *unrisen*.”

This was certainly written, not for the reason, but for the rhyme. We do not know to what to attribute such slovenly negligence of versification as the following examples afford.

"Water no quality in its covert springs."

"Duly and cheerfully to their toil, and up."

"The deathlike images of the dark away."

"Fire, and wind, and water, do his will."

These lines and many more such have no claim to be called verse.

Mr. Willis has a trick of harping on some favorite word, till it becomes painfully wearisome. Thus, having heard the commendation bestowed on the great poet for the picturesqueness of his epithet *aslant* as applied to the light, he has adopted it, and uses it on all occasions. The light is always *slanting*.

"Struggled aslant the stained and broken panes."

"Sunrise was slanting on the city gates."

"Where the slant light fell on them."

"Of moonlight slanting to the marble floor,"

A still more striking example occurs in the use of the verb *to lift*, as a neuter verb, which we suppose to be unauthorized, — a new poetic license.

"The narrow walls expand, and spread away  
Into a kingly palace, and the roof  
Lifts to the sky."

"My hand feels skilful, and the shadows lift  
From my waked spirit."

"The dark lids lifted from her languid eyes."

In one passage he says very happily, describing the gradual approach of morning,

"Hour by hour,  
Till the stars *melted* in the flush of morn."

But not satisfied with this, he soon spoils it by applying the word to the *path* of the morning star ;

"The glorious planet mounted on,  
Melting her way into the upper sky."

But enough. Mr. Willis is capable of ridding himself of all these faults, and rising above all his affectations, and taking a stand of unquestionable excellence. We hope that he will be faithful to himself, and do it.

ART. VIII. — *The Coronal; a Collection of Miscellaneous Pieces, written at Various Times.* By MRS. CHILD, Author of "Hobomok," "The Rebels," "The Mother's Book," "The Girl's Own Book," &c. Boston. Carter & Hendee. 1892. 18mo. pp. 285.

MRS. CHILD dedicates this little work to the author of "Hope Leslie." We like to see and mention together the names of two of our accomplished countrywomen, who have always seemed to us to bear a sufficient resemblance to each other in the character of their minds and writings to be thus associated. Miss Sedgwick possesses the advantage of having composed more sustained works, and of having devoted her fine powers more exclusively to a single department of literary effort. Mrs. Child has attempted less at a time, and distributed her industry much more variously. We offer them, however, our respectful greetings in the same salutation, feeling assured that neither of them will be offended by being associated with so estimable a companion. They remind us of what Ariosto says of the ladies who honorably distinguished themselves in his time :

"For many, laying silk and sampler down,  
With the melodious Muses, to allay  
Their thirst at Aganippe's well, have gone,  
And still are going ; who so fairly speed,  
That we more theirs than they our labor need."

In one great respect, indeed, this description is not applicable to the female writers of our own times. They do not sacrifice in the cause of letters any of those good household cares and affections that are so graceful in woman. They occupy no professor's chair at the universities, but fill excellently that which stands at their own firesides. Their Aganippe flows fast by their homes. Their acquirements and taste and diligence, in making them more widely celebrated and useful, rather embellish than interfere with domestic worth and the plainest duties.

Many of the pieces in this Collection have appeared before, and received the favorable notice of the public. Others are new. They are of course of unequal merits. Several are eminently beautiful. We confess ourselves most pleased with the shortest, such as "Spring," and "Thoughts," the

lines on Vanderlyn's Picture, with which the volume begins, and "The First and Last Book" with which it ends. There is a thoughtfulness and imagination and feeling in these, that may be sure of taking effect, because they are natural, and will awaken correspondent sentiments in other minds. The narratives seem to us far less agreeable; especially,—if we may be allowed to express a special dislike,—that of the "Rival Brothers." Unmingled and incredible atrocity is a bad subject for any pen. One can almost find it in his heart to be glad that it should be unsuccessful in the hands of an amiable woman, like the author of the "Coronal."

We should be glad to indulge ourselves by quoting some of the happiest passages in the volume, but will select only one, hoping that our readers will seek out the rest for themselves.

"We need amusements in the decline of life, even more than in its infancy; and where shall we find any so safe, satisfactory, and dignified, as battery and barometer, telescope and prism? Electric powers may be increased with less danger than man's ambition; it is far safer to weigh the air than a neighbour's motives; it is more disquieting to watch tempests lowering in the political horizon, than it is to gaze at volcanoes in the moon; and it is much easier to separate and unite the colors in a ray of light, than it is to blend the many colored hues of truth, turned out of their course by the sharp corners of angry controversy." p. 85.

The paragraph is from a very pretty essay on "The Blessed Influence of the Studies of Nature."

We have discovered here and there faults of haste and inadvertence. We do not mention them in order to show our impartiality or our acuteness, but with the hope that so good a writer as Mrs. Child will not allow herself habitually to fall into them. Such are, for instance, the last line but one in the stanzas on Caius Marius,

"Some towering thoughts still rear on high,"

and

"She *whom* I told you reminded me." p. 128.

Such expressions as the following, we must also take the liberty to say, are quite unworthy of her taste, and would have been readily rejected by her more deliberate judgment.

"He that lives only for fame, will find that happiness and renown are scarcely *speaking acquaintance*." p. 84.

"It is the fashion in this philosophic day to laugh at Romance, and *cut all acquaintance* with sentiment." p. 156.

We think that this lady possesses talents, to which nothing that she has hitherto written has done full justice. We would have her take more pains in elaborating her compositions, and attempt greater things.

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ART. IX. — *Collections of the Maine Historical Society.*  
Vol. I. Portland. 1831. 8vo. pp. 416.

THE labors of Historical Societies have contributed much towards developing the early history of our country. To them the public is indebted for the preservation of valuable documents which were fast passing into "the receptacle of things lost on earth," and for the compilation of memoirs from original materials, which without their aid would never have seen the light. A spirit of research has grown out of their influence, the results of which may be discerned in the volumes published under their auspices, and in the numerous local histories that have appeared from time to time. In these publications the general historian must hereafter seek his materials; to them he will be traced by his readers, and by them made to stand or fall.

The volume before us is a fair specimen of what may be accomplished by these associations. It is readily perceived by the perusal of the valuable articles which it contains, that no adequate idea of the early history of the eastern portion of New England can be formed without a knowledge of what is here for the first time brought to the light. A history of the District of Maine (as it then was) was prepared several years ago by a distinguished gentleman, one of the Presidents of the Massachusetts Historical Society; but so limited was the research of that period, that even a superficial examination of the present volume is sufficient to satisfy any one of the imperfection of that work. Tried by this standard, Sullivan's "History" (to which we refer) is replete with errors of fact, that must for ever extinguish its pretensions to the reputation of a good authority on the subjects of

which it treats. And so must it fare with any publication of general history, whose author has not qualified himself for the task by a rigid examination of the only true sources of historical accuracy, — original documents and local information.

The present volume consists of fourteen distinct articles, the principal one of which is the *First Part of a History of Portland*, and of the other early settlements in the vicinity of that flourishing town, communicated by William Willis, Esq., the Recording Secretary of the Society. This portion of the work has been likewise published in a distinct volume; it comprises the events of a period commencing with the discovery of New England and the first settlements in Maine, and coming down to the close of the seventeenth century. It is impossible within the limits to which we are restricted, to do justice to the high claims which the labors of Mr. Willis have on the public regard. Their value will be estimated, doubtless, more truly in that portion of the country whose history they illustrate; but we are persuaded that every scholar and general reader to whom minuteness of research is not irksome, will find a rich repast in the clear and satisfactory elucidation of a portion of New England annals hitherto buried in complete obscurity. Maine was so long regarded as a mere appendage to the Bay Colony, and withal as a remote and almost barbarous region, that the writers of history were content to furnish very meagre notices of its settlement and growth. It is in fact scarcely known at this period even to its own citizens, that a colonial government was there formed at about the same time as the other original jurisdictions in New England, which entitled it to a respectable rank among them. The present publication must have the effect to set the public right on this subject. It is well fitted not only to dissipate the ignorance and prejudice of which there is so much reason to complain, but to correct the false statements in relation to the first inhabitants of Maine, into which some of the early Puritan writers have fallen. Having been chiefly of the Church of England, and attached to the royal party during the civil wars and the protectorate, they were peculiarly liable to be misrepresented by their brethren of the other colonies. To those readers who are not resolved to shut their eyes against the imperfections of the Puritan fathers, this volume will afford some food for reflection, not only in relation to the religion, but the government, which

they were desirous should be appreciated by their less powerful neighbours.

It appears from Mr. Willis's part of the volume, that Portland, which occupies a peninsula on Casco Bay, called by the Indians *Machigony*, and afterwards successively Cleeves's and Munjoy's Neck, was at first comprised in a large township named Casco, which embraced most of the settlements on the Bay. In 1658, this name was superseded by that of Falmouth, under which the peninsula was included until the year 1786, when the separate incorporation of Portland was made. The peninsula received its first inhabitants from the neighbouring Cape, in 1632, and had a slow but steady growth. It was checked, however, by the hostilities of the Indians towards the close of that century, by whom it was twice laid waste, viz. in 1676 and 1690. The loss of the town records during that period, supposed to have been carried away or destroyed by the enemy, has rendered the labor of Mr. Willis far more embarrassing and difficult than it would otherwise have been; and yet he has been enabled to supply their place so fully by means of means of various original documents, that the deficiency is hardly perceptible. We would gladly make liberal extracts from the work, did our limits permit; and, moreover, the reader will be better satisfied, we think, by a perusal of the volume itself. The following notice of Mr. Burroughs, a minister of Falmouth, who was executed for witchcraft at Salem, deserves to be quoted out of justice to the memory of that unfortunate man, and to his posterity. He was graduated at Harvard College in 1670, and was settled at Falmouth about four years after. The inhabitants were dispersed by the Indian war the following year, and Mr. Burroughs did not resume his labors until 1683. Mr. Willis says,

"George Burroughs returned to the ministry here in 1683. The first notice of his return that we find, is in June of that year, when at the request of the town he relinquished a hundred and seventy acres of land which had been granted to him previous to the war. In their application for this purpose they offered to give him a hundred acres 'further off,' for the quantity relinquished, but Burroughs replied, 'as for the land already taken away, we were welcome to it, and if twenty acres of the fifty above expressed, would pleasure us, he freely gave it to us, not desiring any land any where else, nor any thing

else in consideration thereof.' This disinterestedness places the character of Mr. Burroughs in a very amiable light, which nothing can be found during the whole course of his ministry here to impair. . . . There has nothing survived Mr. Burroughs, either in his living or dying, that casts any reproach upon his character; and although he died the victim of a fanaticism as wicked and stupid as any which has ever been countenanced in civilized society, and which for a time prejudiced his memory, yet his reputation stands redeemed in a more enlightened age from any blemish." pp. 174, 175.

The other articles in the volume are brief notices of the towns of Limerick and Wells; various original papers in relation to the government of Maine before its purchase by Massachusetts; two selections from the manuscripts of the late Governor Lincoln, relating to the Indian languages, and the Catholic Missions in Maine; and, finally, Letters written by Arnold during the expedition to Quebec in 1775, together with a Journal of the same expedition, compiled by President Allen. The following remarks on the dialect spoken by the Norridgewock Indians (who dwelt on the upper waters of the Kennebec) are from the Lincoln manuscripts.

"The most remarkable property of the Norridgewock tongue is its unbounded susceptibility of composition, which rendered it copious and expressive. That this tribe had some rule of formation or composition of words, not in use with us, appears from the fact that in their long intercourse with the French and English, they very rarely adopted words from either, and even when they had no personal knowledge of the objects to be represented by vocal sounds, they preserved themselves as a distinct people with all that pertinacity with which they have clung to their other habits of life, and retained their own dress for thought as faithfully as they did their peculiar garb. They formed words from domestic materials having no analogy in sound or structure with those by which the stranger presented his ideas and images to the ear and the mind. The Penobscots, in like manner to this day, have preserved the spirit of their language, and have not suffered it to be corrupted or changed, although they have for centuries, nearly, been familiar with English and French. Thus they have their Indian names for elephant, lion, and a great diversity of objects, unknown to them, except through the medium of verbal or pictured representation." p. 312.

The most distinguished Catholic Missionary in Maine, was



Father Râle, who lived among the Norridgewocks a great number of years. His tragical end, occasioned by his supposed hostility to the inhabitants of New England, is described by Governor Lincoln in an interesting manner, and followed by some very sensible remarks which show that the good *Father* had more piety than sound judgment. We can only refer our readers to the passage, — pages 336 – 339.

Many of the papers in relation to Arnold's bold and hazardous expedition through the forests and morasses of Maine into Canada, are curious and entertaining, and by some readers will be preferred, doubtless, to the other materials of the volume. They were furnished by *Aaron Burr*, of New York, (formerly Vice-President,) who was in the expedition.

We cannot close our remarks without commending the typographical beauty, and the neatness and good taste so apparent in this very acceptable book. It affords a very striking contrast in this respect to the homely beginnings of the Historical Society of Massachusetts towards the close of the last century, a society worthy of imitation in its active and successful labors.

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ART. X. — *The Library of the Old English Prose Writers.*

Vol. III. — *Works of Sir Thomas Browne.* Cambridge. Hilliard & Brown. 1831. 16mo. pp. xxxii and 304.

SIR THOMAS BROWNE seems to have been more generally read and esteemed than most, or perhaps any, of the Old English Prose Writers, as they are commonly called, which may be ascribed partly to his peculiar merit and partly to his life having been written by so popular an author as Dr. Johnson. He is, indeed, a writer and thinker of rare excellence, and the value of what he has left behind him, has been proved by the admiration of those who have lived among opinions and manners widely different from those of his own time. When you first open his book, you perceive at once that you are communing with a mind that has arrived at peculiar results by peculiar processes. The stamp of originality is upon every sentence. Nothing is taken at second-hand, and nothing suggests obvious and familiar asso-

ciations. The range of his mind is boundless, and he seems acquainted with every province of thought. There is a nobility and grandeur in his ideas and sentiments which show them to come from a mind accustomed to take the most comprehensive views of things, to compare their eternal relations, and to construct the potential out of the materials of the actual.

The principal work in this volume is called "The Religion of a Physician"; but how little there is in it that is professional! There is nothing of the smell of the gallipot upon any page. It is the reflection of a fine and original mind, enriched with learning and observation, which has meditated profoundly upon its own substance, upon its relations to God, to the universe, and to other minds, and delivers its results in a manner which shows that the author is conscious of their value, without falling into the arrogant tone of those philosophers who can only look straight forward, and consequently imagine that there is but one road to the temple of Truth. He stands upon a high vantage-ground and commands an extensive horizon. He is remarkable for regarding the essential properties of things, and not their accidental forms. He is no Catholic, but he is willing to kneel at a mass; he believes that the Christian religion can sanctify an idle form. A toad or a bear is not ugly in his eyes, "they being created in those outward shapes which best express those actions of their inward forms."

It would be impossible to give any thing like an analysis of this production. It is without regular form or definite plan, and is a picture of the author's mind, and not originally drawn for the public eye. In his thoughts he does not seem to be governed by the common laws of association, but he writes down upon the spot every fancy that comes into his head. One great charm of his productions arises from the novelty which this peculiarity gives him. In our time a man generally composes for some particular reason, to effect some proposed end, which is kept in view at every period, so that the current of his thoughts is never allowed to wander at its "own sweet will," but is made to flow with a given velocity and in a required direction. But Sir Thomas Browne seems to write because his mind is full to overflowing and craves the relief of composition.

We make one extract from the "*Religio Medici*," as being a fair specimen of his peculiar manner.

"My common conversation I do acknowledge austere, my behaviour full of rigor, sometimes not without morosity. Yet at my devotion I love to use the civility of my knee, my hat, and hand, with all those outward and sensible motions which may express or promote my invisible devotion. I should violate my own arm rather than a church, nor willingly deface the name of saint or martyr. At the sight of a cross or crucifix I can dispense with my hat, but scarce with the thought or memory of my Saviour. I cannot laugh at, but rather pity the fruitless journeys of pilgrims, or condemn the miserable condition of friars; for, though misplaced in circumstances, there is something in it of devotion. I could never hear the Ave-Mary bell without an elevation, or think it a sufficient warrant, because they erred in one circumstance, for me to err in all, that is, in silence and dumb contempt; whilst therefore they directed their devotions to her, I offered mine to God, and rectified the errors of their prayers, by rightly ordering mine own. At a solemn procession I have wept abundantly, while my consorts, blind with opposition and prejudice, have fallen into an excess of scorn and laughter. There are questionless both in Greek, Roman, and African churches, solemnities and ceremonies, whereof the wiser zeals do make a Christian use, and stand condemned by us, not as evil in themselves, but as allurements and baits of superstition to those vulgar heads that look askint on the face of truth, and those unstable judgments that cannot resist in the narrow point and centre of virtue without a reel or stagger to the circumference." pp. 10, 11.

The treatise on "*Urn-Burial*" is full of rare and curious learning, which shows that its author had studied as well as thought. Amidst all its details of facts and quaint speculation there is an under-current of solemn thought which produces an effect upon the soul, like that with which we might listen to the echoed strains of an organ when evening was deepening the obscurity of the lengthened aisles of some reverend cathedral.

The remainder of the volume is occupied with "*A Letter to a Friend*" in a time of affliction, and with some extracts from his largest work, the "*Enquiry into Vulgar Errors*," of which we hope to see more in some future volume. They are all strongly marked with the impress of their author's strikingly original mind.

- ART. XI. — 1. *A Manual containing Information respecting the Growth of the Mulberry Tree, with Suitable Directions for the Culture of Silk.* In Three Parts. By J. H. COBB, A. M. Boston. Carter, Hendee, & Babcock. 1831. 12mo. pp. 68.
2. *Essays on American Silk, and the Best Means of rendering it a Source of Individual and National Wealth; with Directions to Farmers for Raising Silk Worms.* By JOHN D'HOMERGUE, Silk Manufacturer, and PETER STEPHEN DUPONCEAU, Member of the American Philosophical Society. Philadelphia. John Grigg. 1830. 12mo. pp. 120.
3. *A Methodical Treatise on the Cultivation of the Mulberry Tree, on the Raising of Silk Worms, and on Winding the Silk from the Cocoons.* Abridged from the French of M. DE LA BROUSSE; with Notes and an Appendix. By WILLIAM H. VERNON, of Rhode-Island. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, & Co. 1828. 8vo. pp. 174.

THE subject of the Culture of Silk is one which is attracting every day an increasing public attention. Apart from the promise held out of its importance to our country, it is a very interesting subject in itself. That a species of worms, so remarkable among the "puny vouchers of Omnipotence," should be constituted in such a way that all the humors of their body tend to produce a valuable material for human convenience and luxury, and that in the course of a few days they should spin and wind round their bodies an unbroken thread of twelve hundred yards in length, is a subject of admiration as well for the moralist as the lover of nature. When we superadd to these considerations what human skill and contrivance have wrought out, and are told how by the successive processes of art and machinery the most beautiful fabrics have been perfected from the spontaneous productions of the insect, fabrics which find their way all over the civilized world, — an interest of a different kind is felt in the subject, such as springs from the effect of human power and ingenuity in following out the indications of nature, and using the gifts of Providence.

Mr. Vernon's publication has the merit of being first in the order of time among the works before us. It is translated and

abridged from the *tréatise* of M. De la Brousse, who it seems was more of a practical man than accomplished writer, and whose treatise required a good deal of pruning and attention to arrangement in some particulars. The first part of the work, on the mulberry tree, contains information sufficiently minute concerning the different species, the rearing, preservation, and healthy condition of the tree. Mr. Vernon's translation of this part of the work is often literally followed by Mr. Cobb, in the corresponding part of his book; and he acknowledges himself indebted to Mr. Vernon among others, for considerable extracts, where they are consonant with his experience.

The second and larger part of Mr. Vernon's book carries us through the process of rearing the silk-worm from the egg till its growth is completed and its thread is fully spun; in which state it is called a *cocoon*. It is then prepared for being stripped of its covering, by stifling the chrysalis either in a heated oven, or by vapor from hot water, or by exposure to a meridian sun, or by noxious fumes, each of which processes is faithfully described. Next comes an account of the delicate art of reeling or winding the silk from the cocoons, and a description of the machinery for that purpose. The accommodation for the labors of these diligent insects, and the food of which they are greedy devourers, are not overlooked, nor the diseases to which they are subject and the remedies. A good deal of this history is merely curious, containing minute particulars which are attended to in France and other places in respect to the raising and the watchful care of silk-worms, but which are disregarded in this country; particularly what relates to the temperature, which, according to the usage there, is to be nicely adjusted to the different stages in their growth.

Mr. Vernon's book is interspersed with notes and followed by an Appendix, both containing such useful remarks as we might expect from a gentleman of his wide reading and literary leisure; accompanied too by the zest acquired by the author's foreign travels; he being withal an experienced horticulturist.

The *Essays* of M. D'Homergue and Mr. Duponceau, besides their intrinsic worth, excite a peculiar interest from the circumstances of authorship. M. D'Homergue, a young French gentleman, came to Philadelphia from France in

May, 1829, in compliance with the wishes of an association intended to promote the raising of silk-worms and the culture of silk. He is the son of an eminent silk-manufacturer at Nismes; and though he afterwards changed his pursuit, he was originally trained to his father's business, and became thoroughly versed in its various processes. Mr. Duponceau became acquainted with him soon after his arrival, and perceived that he was familiar with the history and practical details of the culture of silk. Becoming interested in a subject of which he had before only a superficial knowledge, Mr. Duponceau was unwilling to let the opportunity escape of giving the American public the benefit of what could be procured from an intelligent and well-instructed foreigner upon matters which had already occupied the attention of our general government. To this end he obtained from M. D'Homergue, who was ignorant of the English language, all the information that he deemed most important, which he condensed and published in the "*National Gazette*," in the form of *Essays*, and in M. D'Homergue's name, together with some accessory matters; claiming little more for himself than the merit of communicating the knowledge of another. (Duponceau's Preface to the *Essays*, pp. xiii, xiv, xviii.)

The circumstances which give peculiar value to these "*Essays*" are, that the author came hither possessed of a full knowledge of the silk business in his own country, and that he informed himself of the state of the business in this country under the guidance and tutelage of a distinguished citizen and scholar, who, so far from allowing him to be misled or imposed upon by others, assisted him in procuring and collating facts, and turning them to the best account, so as to warn our people against rashness and over-doing, with which they are sometimes charged as besetting sins.

The "*Essays*" are preceded by a well-adapted Preface, written by Mr. Duponceau, to which we have already alluded. They begin with an account of the quality of the American silk that fell under M. D'Homergue's notice, and of his experiments in regard to its relative quantity, compared with that produced by the silk-worms of Europe. He was struck with its remarkable fineness, and with the peculiar beauty of the silk of the white cocoons, which he found to be numerous in this country, and which are most to be prized. In the

quantity of the silk also, his experiments proved a great superiority in favor of this country ; that is, taking the worms produced in Pennsylvania as an average specimen in this particular. The results of his experiments were remarkable in the following particulars. The American cocoons proved to be nearly twice the weight of the European, and much more uniform in their weight ; and of the same weight of American and of European cocoons, the American produced twice the weight of silk. Greatest of all was M. D'Homergue's surprise to find that the silk-worms, which in Europe require so much tender care to guard them against changes of temperature, (the directions concerning which form no small part of the foreign treatises upon the culture of silk,) should in our most mutable and fickle climate be protected against the great and sudden variations of the weather, so as to excel to such a degree those of Europe.

"I am as yet at a loss to conceive how the American farmers do to prevent the worms from feeling the effects of those changes. This requires more care, attention, and sagacity than might be believed by those who are not acquainted with the constitution of that delicate insect. I doubt much whether it will be credited at first in Europe, when the fact shall be made known there. All I can say is, that it has excited the astonishment of gentlemen from France, well acquainted with the silk business, who would not have believed it if they had not been present at my experiment." pp. 6, 7.

M. D'Homergue recurs to the subject of climate again in another part of his book ; and endeavours to account for what had before seemed to him mysterious, by stating certain facts which appear to have been overlooked by other writers.

"In China," he remarks, "the native country of the silk-worm, that useful insect is born, grows, and thrives in the open air. Like the common caterpillar it nestles upon trees, and there winds its beautiful cocoons.—In Europe, on the contrary, in Italy and the south of France, notwithstanding the boasted mildness of those climates, the egg is hatched and the worm is raised in *hot-houses* with infinite trouble and care. In the works of Dandolo and Bonafous, the most approved European writers on this subject, the one an Italian, the other a Frenchman, we find the most minute directions for regulating from day to day the heat of stoves ; and the farmer who raises

silk-worms must have the thermometer constantly in his hand, the degrees of heat being fixed for every day of the growth of the animal, and almost for every hour. The numerous works on the art of raising silk-worms are in a great measure filled with these details." p. 65.

In this country the directions here spoken of are altogether neglected. M. D'Homergue found this to be the fact, though the copious Manual published under the authority of Congress embraces the minute details of foreign writers, and enjoins the use of the thermometer as absolutely essential; in default of which millions of the worms must die, and many that survive must become feeble and unproductive, and the race must degenerate. Still, however, he found that silk-worms were raised in various parts of the United States, and kept in a healthy condition, and clothed with their rich covering, remarkable for the quality and quantity, without the use of stoves or thermometers, notwithstanding the alleged vicissitudes of our climate. This fact led him to examine the thermometrical observations published in the city of Philadelphia, from which he ascertained that in the year in which he wrote the *Essays* (1829) the thermometer, in the open air, from the 22d of May to the 22d of June, had not fallen below  $69\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit, although, he adds, "during that period the weather was sometimes unusually cool." \* This is the usual season for raising the silk-worms; and the author's experience, as well as the authority of others had taught him, that a temperature not falling below the  $62^{\circ}$  degree of Fahrenheit could not be injurious to those insects; so that if the meteorological observations relied upon were any thing near the truth and the average temperature of different years, M. D'Homergue's case is fully made out; namely, that, "during the proper time of raising silk-worms, the temperature is hardly ever such as to endanger their health; and, unless it be so," he "can perceive no way to account for the success of the American farmers in raising their silk-worms, and producing such beautiful silk, without any of those precautions respecting the degrees of heat which are

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\* We think there must be some inaccuracy in this statement. It would be a fact somewhat remarkable during a succession of thirty days, even in the usual period of the greatest heat of summer, that the thermometer should at no time indicate a degree of temperature lower than  $69\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ .



taken by the silk-culturists of Europe." Another fact that goes to establish the favorableness of the climate of the Middle States to the silk-worm is, that while in Europe the period from the hatching of the egg to the completion of the cocoon is forty-five and sometimes forty-seven days, it is, in this country, but thirty-one days.\* (pp. 66-70.)

Thus does M. D'Homergue set forth the advantages enjoyed in this country for the raising of silk-worms. The next question is, what to do with the silk after they have completed their part of the labor. M. D'Homergue thinks we should proceed to learn the art of winding the silk from the cocoons, which is as yet unknown among us, and there stop for the present. Till we have attained this art, our extensive mulberry orchards and myriads of silk-worms are little better than playthings, perhaps even expensive ones. Having learned this art, nothing will be wasted. It belongs to those who possess it to distinguish the different kinds or qualities of silk, which are various, so as to keep them distinct, and see that every thing is saved for the remaining processes and manufacture of different articles. Hitherto in Connecticut and other parts of this country, as much has been accomplished in this way as could be expected from untutored ingenuity. But it is a delicate and difficult process, requiring good machinery and much instruction and practice. We forbear to enter upon the technical minutiae pertaining to it, which might prove uninteresting to many of our readers; but we are satisfied from M. D'Homergue's statements, that, whenever we shall advance thus far and produce raw silk of a merchantable quality, there will be no want of a profitable market in silk-manufacturing countries; and that it will be safer for us to stop here, till we become perfect in this first step, than to attempt to grasp the whole business of the manufacture of silk at once.

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\* This may be true in Philadelphia and farther south; or it may be that the conclusion is drawn from too small a number of examples. Mr. Cobb in his *Manual* says, "thirty-two days intervene between the hatching and the beginning of the cocoon, and I have known the period retarded to sixty days." (Page 30.) Something is to be allowed for difference of temperature between the vicinity of Philadelphia and that of Boston; but the result on the whole seems to be, that like man in this new world, these busy insects, too, are quicker and more efficient in their operations than in European countries.

Mr. Cobb's "Manual," "published by direction of his Excellency Governor Lincoln, agreeably to a resolve of the Commonwealth," is a very valuable production, methodical in its arrangement, simple and perspicuous in style, containing in a small compass the most important information upon the subjects treated, and free from exaggeration and parade of learning. He acknowledges himself indebted in some measure to the Manual published under the authority of Congress; to the two first numbers of "The Silk-Culturist," by Dr. Felix Pascalis, of New York; to the work of Mr. Vernon, and that of M. D'Homergue and Mr. Duponceau; and to a pamphlet by Gideon B. Smith, Esq., of Baltimore. But besides the use made of these authors by their permission, and with good judgment, his work gives, in every thing essential, the results of his own experience; and whatever he has borrowed from others is adapted to our climate and to the circumstances of the culture of silk among us; being thus made, not only intelligible, but practically useful.

The First Part of Mr. Cobb's "Manual" treats of the Mulberry Tree, for the leaves of which, as food for the silk-worm, there appears to be no good substitute. He carries us through the whole process of preparing and sowing the seed, and rearing and fostering the tree. Besides the different species of the mulberry tree which have been often described, including the white mulberry tree, (commonly cultivated for the sake of silk-worms,) he gives an account of the Chinese mulberry. It was introduced into France (we are not told in what year) by M. S. Perrottet, a member of the Linnean Society of Paris, who was employed by the French government as a travelling botanist. He brought with him from the Asiatic regions a very rare and extensive collection of plants, among which was one which he called *Morus Mulicaulis*, for the first time ascertained to be the *Morus alba Sinensis*; the real Chinese mulberry. This information is taken from the second number of the "Silk-Culturist," published by Dr. Pascalis of New York, and was communicated to the Doctor in a letter from Havre. The tree has been introduced into this country, and promises to supersede all others of the same class. (Cobb's Manual, pp. 21, 22, 23.)

Mr. Cobb, in the Second Part of his "Manual," gives in sixteen pages, and in a clear and brief manner, the necessary directions in regard to the "Rearing of Silk-Worms," a

subject which we have anticipated, so far as the extent which we have prescribed to ourselves for its consideration admits, in speaking of the work of M. D'Homergue and Mr. Duponceau.

In the Third Part, Mr. Cobb treats of "Reeling and Manufacturing Silk." In regard to the reeling of the silk, a desideratum so much insisted upon by M. D'Homergue, the prospect is brightening. Mr. Cobb gives an account of his recent visit to the nursery and filature of Mr. Duponceau. The filature was established under the direction of M. D'Homergue.

"Ten reels are employed, each of which is worked by two women under the superintendence of Mr. D'Homergue. The reels of this filature are made chiefly on the model of the Piedmontese reel, somewhat simplified by Mr. D'Homergue. He put one of these reels in operation in my presence, and it appeared to work very easily. The silk reeled at that time I have preserved as a specimen, and have since been informed by an intelligent merchant of New York, that it would bring seven dollars a pound in France. I was also shown several parcels of sewing-silk, manufactured by Mr. D'Homergue from the refuse cocoons." p. 45, *note*.

Mr. Cobb describes his own practice in preparing the cocoons, and reeling from them the silk. He acknowledges that "the reeling of silk requires skill, practice, and experience. But let not those who undertake it be readily discouraged; perseverance and attention for a short season will enable them to become expert at the business, although their first efforts may seem discouraging." Mr. Cobb's reel is similar to the Piedmontese, with improvements of his own, more neatly finished, as he tells us, than any that he has seen in this country; and he can furnish it to others for twenty-five dollars. He has never yet been able in his family to reel a pound in a day. The silk, when reeled upon Mr. Cobb's machine, sells for four dollars and a half a pound, and some at a higher price. It commands in this condition as high a price as the Connecticut sewing-silk, which loses half its weight in the preparation, besides the labor superadded to the reeled or raw silk. Mr. Cobb, without any precise details, informs us that he has been able, with the assistance of one man, to turn his raw silk to a profitable account in the manufacture of fringes, cords, furniture-bind-

ings, &c. But on the subject of silk manufactures there is little or nothing for remark at present in this country, and we do not presume to prophesy concerning it; but, as in many other things the mechanical genius and enterprise of our country have outrun all foresight and prognostication, so in this, no advances which may be made will greatly call forth our wonder or surprise. And it may be that Mr. Cobb is not too sanguine in his predictions contained in the following paragraph.

"We in America are not obliged to pursue the same course that is followed in Europe. The ingenuity and intelligence of our community will soon arrange a reeling apparatus by the family fire-side; and that part of the year which cannot be employed in rearing the worms, will be advantageously improved in reeling the cocoons to any given pattern or degree of fineness; nor is there any more difficulty in it than in the manufacture of straw, and many other employments which have engaged the attention of our females. The time is probably not far distant, when America will excel Europe in her silk manufactures, as much as she now does in her cotton." pp. 48, 49.

But we have not time to speculate upon what is prospective; and for the sake of brevity we have avoided going into the historical accounts pertaining to our subject, and the statistical views which can be gathered from the works before us, and from the Manual prepared by the act of Congress.

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ART. XII. — 1. *A Grammar of the Greek Language.* By BENJAMIN FRANKLIN FISK. Second Edition. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1831. 12mo. pp. 263.

2. *Greek Exercises, containing the Substance of the Greek Syntax, illustrated by Passages from the Best Greek Authors, to be written out from the Words given in their Simplest Form.* By BENJAMIN FRANKLIN FISK. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1831. 12mo. pp. 171.

THE fact that Mr. Fisk's Greek Grammar has gone into a second edition shows that his learned labors begin to be well understood among us. It is a work which amply sustains the reputation of the author, who was known before its pub-

lication, among his personal acquaintances, to have devoted himself with no common ardor, and in the loftiest spirit of scholarship, to the cultivation of classical learning. This Grammar does great honor to Mr. Fisk, and reflects much credit upon the literature of the country. We hope he will reap an abundant reward for his assiduous toils, not only in the shape of praise, but in the more substantial result of an extensive sale. Having expressed in general terms our approbation of the work, we proceed to a more detailed statement of its claims to public attention.

In a Preface, which shows that Mr. Fisk understands the art of writing English, as well as the science of Greek Grammar, he says, that "with a labor to be appreciated by those only who are conversant with such studies (to say nothing of extraneous impediments of no ordinary character) he collected and perused every work which seemed likely to afford any thing of service to his undertaking." The materials thus collected have been well digested, and the results of the author's personal investigations have been stated clearly and forcibly. For very good reasons, the modern arrangement of Nouns, in three declensions, has been adopted in preference to the ten declensions of the elder grammarians. The simplicity of this plan is undoubtedly a strong argument in its favor. In its general principles it embraces nouns of all descriptions; and in its detail, the rules of contraction enable the learner to arrange in a simple scheme all that class of nouns, which formed *five* out of the *ten* declensions in the old system. But to obviate objections and to meet the wishes of those who prefer the old method, a table of the "Ten Declensions" is annexed. The list of words belonging to the third declension, with the formation of their genitives, is copious, and useful to the beginner. It is desirable that the forms of a language which are to be first learned, should be as simple as the nature of the language will permit. Though nothing essential to an accurate and comprehensive view should be sacrificed to the plausible claims of simplicity, yet, if both can be united, a judicious teacher will never hesitate to sacrifice an old and complicated, to a new and simple system. Such are evidently the old and new systems of the Declensions.

The Chapters on Adjectives and Pronouns do not differ from the corresponding parts of other elementary grammars, except in their superior clearness of expression and ar-

rangement. They display throughout those marks of scholar-like labor, which must ever give the chief value to works of this description.

The nature and power of the Greek verb in all its modes and voices are surrounded with many nice and difficult points. No grammar, perhaps, can do more than furnish a few dubious and uncertain lights, to the path of the scholar, through the mazes of this most intricate subject. Certain it is, that no modern language can express one half of the slightly differing, almost commingling shades of meaning, that are conveyed to the mind by the versatile formation of the Greek verb. The linguist, who has cultivated an accurate knowledge of Greek, by long and intense study of the original authors, assisted by the helps furnished by the learned works of modern scholars, feels the simplicity and incomparable clearness with which an idea, a description, or an action is presented by the verb, with articles, prepositions, and other particles, varied through the almost endless forms of participles, tenses, voices, and modes, which present the idea, not nakedly, but in all its bearings, and yet with perfect distinctness, in reference to all the circumstances by which it may be encompassed; and at the same time, he feels his utter inability of presenting it *as a whole*, in any modern tongue, without enveloping it in profound obscurity. Grammarians have, however, endeavoured to explain these varieties, as well as they could. Their statements have been founded on examples, which, in most cases, have been contradicted by other examples, equally, if not more numerous. This is not owing to the fault of the writers, but to the extent and difficulty of the subject. Mr. Fisk has followed the popular notion, in his arrangement of the verb; and upon some points we would, without calling in question his learning and abilities, express our dissent from his opinions. The first of these points is the *Middle Voice*. The common opinion of the import of this form, we believe to be, in most cases, destitute of foundation. Mr. Fisk's definition is: "The Middle Voice expresses an action that is reflected upon the agent, as *τίπτωμαι*, *I strike myself*;" and this agrees with the definition commonly given. But the usage of the language proves that this reflective sense is merely imaginary. In the few words which are adduced as examples, it requires often some little ingenuity and circumlocution to give them a reflective sense,

while the true meaning of the words may be expressed in a much more simple and direct form. The tenses which pass under the name of the Middle Voice, almost always bear an active or neuter signification, sometimes varying from that of the active form, and sometimes not. The first and second Aorist Middle, are the most frequently used, but, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, have nothing like a reciprocal sense. In the divisions under the general definition, Mr. Fisk says, "1. The middle voice signifies what we do to ourselves, and is equivalent to the action joined to the corresponding reflective pronoun; as *λούω*, I wash another, but *λούομαι* the same as *λούω ἑμαυτόν*, I wash myself;" &c. Now the fact is, that the *reciprocal* translation in this and many other instances, though it apparently expresses the idea, does not express it exactly; *λούω* means I wash any thing, and *λούομαι*, middle, I bathe, or I take a bath, not necessarily I wash myself. For example, in Book viii. of the Odyssey, verse 449, we have

*Αὐτόδιον δ' ἄρα μιν ταμὴν λούσασθαι ἄνωγεν,*

"Immediately then the housekeeper ordered him to bathe,"

which might have been very well rendered *to wash himself*, had not the poet, a few lines further on, entered into some details of the process of bathing, such as

*Τὸν δ' ἐπεὶ οὖν δμῶαὶ λούσαν, καὶ χρίσαν ἑλαιῳ.*

"And when the servants had washed him, and anointed him with oil."

From which it appears that although Ulysses was directed to bathe (*λούσασθαι*), yet he did not wash himself, but servants performed the operation for him (*δμῶαὶ λούσαν*). We are inclined to think that in all cases it would be more accurate to translate the word in the same manner. Again, "*ἤλειψαν αὐτόν*, they anointed him; but *ἤλειψαντο* the same as *ἤλειψαν ἑαυτοὺς*, they anointed themselves." This is a case in point, and a strong one, yet even in regard to this word, usage is not uniform, as in *Iliad* xiv. 175.

*Τῷ δ' ἦγε χροῖα καλὸν ἀλειψαμένη, ἰδὲ χαίτας*

*Πεξαμένη.*

"With this she having anointed her beautiful person," &c.

Again: "*ἀπέχειν, ἀπόσχαιν*, to restrain, *ἀπέχεσθαι, ἀποσχίσθαι*, to restrain one's self, to refrain." This distinction is not recognised by the usage of the best writers. For example, in Xenophon's *Memorabilia*, Lib. i. Cap. ii. § 37, we have

Ἀλλὰ τῶνδ' ἑτοίμοι σε ἀπέχεσθαι, ἔφη, δεήσαι·

"But it will behove you to refrain from these ;"

the verb being in the middle form. And in Cap. ii. § 62,

Ὡς ἐκείνος πάντων ἀνθρώπων πλεῖστον ἀπέχετο·

"From which he most of all men refrained ;"

the verb being in the active form, but with precisely the same meaning. Examples might be multiplied, but it is unnecessary. We will mention only one or two more. Rem. 2.

Θώρακα ἐδύνειν, to put a breastplate on another ; θώρακα ἐδύνεσθαι, to put a breastplate on one's self." But this distinction does not hold, for we find in Iliad, v. 736,

Ἥ δ' ἑ χιτῶν' ἐδύσα Διὸς, &c.

"And she, having put on (i. e. put on herself) the tunic of Jove," &c.

the verb being active. And in Iliad, xix. 371,

Δεύτερον αὖ θώρακα περὶ στήθεσιν ἔδυνεν.

"In the next place, he put on his breastplate around his breast."

In the latter example, the verb is ἐδύνω, and not ἐδύναι, but both are from the same theme and have the same meaning. Again, φυλάττειν, to watch any one, to observe ; φυλάττεσθαι, to observe any thing to one's advantage in order to avoid it." This distinction is general but not uniform, for we have in Euripides, Medea, 320, 321,

Ἰωνὴ γὰρ ὀξύθυμος, ὥς δ' αὖτως ἀνὴρ.

Ῥῆμα φυλάσσειν, ἢ σιωπηλὸς σοφός.

"For a sharp-tempered woman, as well as man,  
Is easier to guard against than a silent, cunning one."

Here the active verb φυλάσσειν bears the meaning usually given to the middle form. Again, ἡ Πάνθεα θώρακα ἐποίησάτο, Panthea caused a breastplate to be made." But we have in Iliad, v. 735,

Ὅν ῥ' αὐτὴ ποιήσατο καὶ καίμ' ἑ χερσίν.

"Which she made and wrought with her own hands."

Thus it seems, that the middle signification belongs to but few words, that it often requires a forced interpretation in those few, and that many examples occur which have plainly a different meaning.



We differ from Mr. Fisk also, in regard to the propriety of restoring the *second perfect* and the *second pluperfect*, to their former station in the Middle Voice. The only argument in favor of it is, that this arrangement preserves "the symmetry which has hitherto existed in the three voices." In the first place, this symmetry is a mere fancy of grammarians; there is not a single verb in the Greek language which has all the tenses and voices attributed to the Greek verb. In the next place, it has been demonstrated by Buttmann and other late German grammarians, that these tenses never have a middle signification; and the principle of their formation is strictly analogous to the active. Even if the few middle tenses are permitted to constitute a separate voice, there is no sufficient reason for adding to them other tenses, which by universal acknowledgment have no claim to be so considered, except that of "symmetry."

The other parts of speech are treated with good judgment, in the remaining portion of the Etymology. In all our school grammars, the subject of Syntax has been set forth in a very unsatisfactory and imperfect shape. The Rules have been too technical, and of course unintelligible to beginners. There is doubtless an insuperable difficulty in drawing up a system of Greek Syntax, which shall at once be sufficiently comprehensive to embrace an adequate view of the varied and flexible constructions of the language, and sufficiently simple to answer the purpose of an elementary school-book. It is a department that requires an ample discussion and many volumes to exhaust it. The most that can be done is to select the more obvious principles, and embody them in intelligible rules, illustrated by pertinent examples, leaving the student to perfect his knowledge by studying the authors and consulting the voluminous and philosophical writings, particularly of German philologists, at his leisure. This object Mr. Fisk has successfully accomplished. His arrangement is excellent; his rules are neatly and intelligibly expressed, and his examples are happily selected from an extensive range of personal studies. The Prosody is drawn up with great care, and is believed, as the author remarks in the Preface, to be "as full and satisfactory as the limits allowable to its relative importance will admit of its being made." Copious tables of the Dialects have been taken from the "Gloucester Greek Grammar." We are glad to

find that the *quantity* of the penultimate in doubtful cases, is uniformly marked. If this is properly attended to by teachers and scholars, it will do away that barbarous disregard of correct pronunciation, which is next to universal among us.

On the whole, considering the difficulty and extent of the subject, we must say that Mr. Fisk has been uncommonly successful. The few points, with regard to which we think him in the wrong, are of no great practical importance, and detract but little from the value of his work. It cannot be expected, nor is it possible, that a language which grew up so freely and luxuriantly as the Greek, which existed classical and pure twenty centuries, which is as varied as the face of nature, and as profound as the mind and heart of man, which advanced with the advance of intellect, from the description of the external, to the description of the internal world, and is more than adequate to both, — it is impossible, we say, that such a language should be reduced to its elements, and thoroughly analysed, in a single treatise. The dialect of Homer, which has been absurdly represented by many grammarians, and is still absurdly represented by many teachers, as a jargon made up of half a dozen provincial forms, is found by learned scholars quite enough of itself, for copious volumes of elaborate grammatical discussion. The work before us, is, however, worthy of being extensively adopted. We cordially recommend it to those who wish to begin their Greek studies, with a simple and intelligible statement of the principles which form the ground-work of that ancient and most interesting language.

The "Exercises," compiled by the same author, ought to be used in connexion with the Grammar. They are selected from the best Greek authors, and arranged in reference to the Grammar. We rejoice to welcome a book so happily adapted to the wants of our classical schools. The writing of Greek is indispensable to the attainment of even a tolerable knowledge of the language. Numerous idiomatic expressions, the nice shades of difference between the tenses, and even the orthography, require the exercise of writing to fix them in the memory. *Nulla dies sine linea* should be the motto of the ingenuous youth who aspires to a manly command over the polished languages of antiquity. This unpretending little volume is well worthy the attention of teachers. By using it, the progress of the scholar will be rendered at

the same time easy and agreeable, and his knowledge definite and sure. Mr. Fisk deserves the thanks of the friends of good education for his important and valuable labors.

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ART. XIII. — *History of the Northmen, or the Danes and Normans, from the Earliest Times to the Conquest of England by William of Normandy.* By HENRY WHEATON, Honorary Member of the Scandinavian and Icelandic Literary Societies at Copenhagen. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea. 1831. 8vo. pp. 367.

THE design of this work is thus expressed in the Preface :

“In the following attempt to illustrate the early annals of the North, it has been the writer's aim to seize the principal points in the progress of society and manners in this remote period, which have been either entirely passed over or barely glanced at by the national historians of France and England, but which throw a strong and clear light upon the affairs of Europe during the middle ages, and illustrate the formation of the great monarchies now constituting some of its leading states.”

When we look back upon the various incursions of nations from the East and the North to the more civilized regions of the southwest of Europe, from the first invasion of the Cimbri and Teutones, about a century before Christ, to the successive irruptions of German and Slavonian tribes during the middle ages, successively destroying and establishing mighty empires, and thus by degrees changing and renovating the world,—the wonderful exploits of the Scandinavians form as it were the last act in this great drama of universal history. The Goths, the Vandals, the Huns, and all the diverse tribes which under various names invaded, subdued, and desolated France, Spain, and Italy, pressed on by land to wrest the riches of the ancient world from their effeminate possessors. The Scandinavians, the Northmen, were the children of the sea, those of whom the Ynlinga-Saga says, “They are rightly named Sea-Kings, who never seek shelter under a roof, and never drain their drinking-horn at a cottage fire.” They came from the coasts of Norway and Denmark to infest and subdue those kingdoms which the conquerors of the Roman Empire had erected on its ruins.

Even before they discovered Iceland, Greenland, and perhaps North America, they pressed forward to the South of Europe, led on by the love of adventure, strife, and conquest, without chart or compass, in their frail canoes, at whose sight Charlemagne, when, from the windows of his palace at Narbonne, he saw them hovering on the bosom of the Mediterranean, shed prophetic tears over the impending fate of his kingdom. Thus, when we view the invasion of the Northmen which ended in the overthrow of the old, and the foundation of the new English monarchy, in connexion with the preceding migrations of tribes and nations, which like the rush of "many waters" overwhelmed the South and the West of Europe, and changed the face of the ancient world, the maritime invasion of the Northmen appears as the last proud wave dashing against the continent and bearing down the last dams of ancient civilization.

Our author after having told us what little the ancient Greeks and Romans knew of the Scandinavians, shows how these bold sea-rovers, not confined to the Baltic, roamed over the great Northern and Western Oceans, and at a very early period discovered the Orcades and Faroer Isles. He describes the discovery of Iceland by the Norwegian Naddod, in 861, and its settlement by those Norwegians who from time to time fled thither from persecution and oppression at home. "The rumor soon spread over the North of this new and goodly land where man might live free from the tyranny of kings and lords." About a century after the discovery of Iceland, Erik the Red, the son of the Norwegian Thorwald who had been exiled from his native country for having slain his enemy, was compelled to leave Iceland for the same reason which had banished his father from Norway. Erik discovered Greenland in 982, and led thither a small colony, which was afterwards converted to Christianity. "The church and colony of Greenland continued to flourish, until a remarkable disease, called the Black Plague" (or the Black Death), "which spread all over the countries of the North (1348), ravaged the settlements, and their ruin was finally consummated by a feud with the wild natives (1481)."

In the year 1001, Bjarne, one of the descendants of Ingolf, the first settler of Iceland, having set sail from Norway to join his father Herjolf in Greenland, and being carried by the wind first to the west, then southwardly, descried a flat country

covered with woods, the appearance of which was so different from that of Greenland as it had been described to him, that he would not go on shore, but made sail to the north-west. In this course, he saw an island at a distance, but continued his voyage and arrived safely in Greenland.

The recital of what he had seen excited Leif, the son of Erik the Red, to emulate the fame his father had acquired by the discovery of Greenland. Leif purchased Bjarne's ship, and set sail with thirty-five companions, among whom was a native of the South-countries, named Tyrker (Dieterich Dirk) probably a German.

"They first discovered what they supposed to be one of the countries seen by Bjarne, the coast of which was a flat, stony land, and the back ground crowned with lofty mountains, covered with ice and snow. This they named Helluland, or the flat country. Pursuing their voyage farther south, they soon came to another coast, also flat, covered with thick wood, and the shores of white sand, gradually sloping towards the sea. Here they cast anchor and went on shore. They named the country Mark-land, or the country of the wood, and pursued their voyage with a north-east wind for two days and nights, when they discovered a third land, the northern coast of which was sheltered by an island. Here they again landed, and found a country, not mountainous, but undulating and woody, and abounding with fruits and berries, delicious to the taste. From thence they reëmbarked, and made sail to the west to seek a harbour, which they at last found at the mouth of a river, where they were swept by the tide into the lake from which the river issued. They cast anchor, and pitched their tents at this spot, and found the river and lake full of the largest salmon they had ever seen. Finding the climate very temperate, and the soil fruitful in pasturage, they determined to build huts and pass the winter here. The days were nearer of an equal length than in Greenland or Iceland, and when they were at the shortest, the sun rose at half-past seven, and set at half-past four o'clock.\*

"It happened one day soon after their arrival, that Tyrker, the German, was missing, and as Leif set a great value upon the youth, on account of his skill in various arts, he sent his followers in search of him in every direction. When they at last found him, he began to speak to them in the Teutonic language, with many extravagant signs of joy. They at last

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\* \* Supposing this computation to be correct, it must have been in the latitude of Boston, the present capital of New England."

made out to understand from him in the North tongue, that he had found in the vicinity vines bearing wild grapes. He led them to the spot, and they brought to their chief a quantity of the grapes which they had gathered. At first, Leif doubted whether they were really that fruit, but the German assured him he was well acquainted with it, being a native of the southern wine countries. Leif, thereupon, named the country Vinland." pp. 23, 24.

In the following spring Leif returned to Greenland. Vinland was afterward visited by his brother Thorwald, who passed the winter in the huts constructed by Leif, and subsisted by fishing. After having explored the country to the west, and then to the east and the north, during the two following summers, and given names to the various capes and bays which he discovered, he was killed by the natives, who approached in a multitude of batteaux to avenge the cruel death which Thorwald had inflicted on two of their countrymen who had been taken prisoners by the Northmen. The natives took to flight after discharging a shower of arrows at their enemies.

"The native inhabitants found by the Northmen in Vinland, resembled those on the western coast of Greenland. These Esquimaux were called by them Skroelingar, or dwarfs, from their diminutive and squalid appearance, in the same manner as their Gothic ancestors had given a similar appellation to the Finns and Laplanders. They found these aborigines deficient in manly courage and bodily strength. p. 26.

The survivors of Thorwald passed the winter in Vinland, and in the spring returned to Greenland.

Vinland was afterward visited by Thorfin, a Norwegian chieftain of great wealth, "who took with him all kinds of domestic animals, tools, and provisions to form a permanent colony, and was accompanied by his wife Gudrida, and five other women. In the following spring, the Skroelingar came in great multitudes to trade with the Northmen in peltries and other productions."

"After a residence of three years in Vinland, Thorfin returned to his native country with specimens of the fruits and peltries which he had collected. . . . A part of Thorfin's company still remained in Vinland, and they were afterwards joined by two Icelandic chieftains, named Helgi and Fiombofi, who were brothers, and fitted out an expedition from the Greenland colony." p. 28.

"No subsequent traces of the Norman colony in America are to be found until the year 1059, when it is said that an Irish or Saxon priest, named Jon or John, who had preached for some time as a missionary in Iceland, went to Vinland, for the purpose of converting the colonies to Christianity, where he was murdered by the heathens. A bishop of Greenland, named Erik, afterwards (1121), undertook the same voyage, for the same purpose, but with what success is uncertain. . . . . The colony established by them probably perished in the same manner with the ancient establishments in Greenland. Some faint traces of its existence may, perhaps, be found in the relations of the Jesuit missionaries respecting a native tribe in the district of Gaspe, at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, who are said to have attained a certain degree of civilization, to have worshipped the sun, and observed the position of the stars. Others revered the symbol of the cross before the arrival of the French missionaries, which, according to their tradition, had been taught them by a venerable person, who cured, by this means, a terrible epidemic which raged among them." pp. 30, 31.

We have given here the essentials of the details of this discovery which Mr. Wheaton has collected from the Icelandic chronicles. They seem sufficient to invalidate the assertion of a late English review of Mr. Wheaton's book, that "the internal evidence of the story is enough to show that it is wholly unworthy of credit." There is nothing in the description of the country and its inhabitants, which does not in its general features agree with the northerly regions of this continent, and with the aboriginal Esquimaux. The distance between Greenland and the opposite American shore is inconsiderable, particularly from the most southern point of Greenland, or its western shore; and recent discoveries have proved that the Norwegians established a colony also on this western coast, — a fact which before rested only on the authority of those Icelandic chronicles which relate the discovery and settlement of Vinland. If we consider for a moment the distance from Greenland to Iceland, and particularly that between Iceland and Norway; if we consider, moreover, that the undoubted discoverers and settlers, both of Iceland and Greenland, had before that time explored and ravaged the coasts of France and Spain, — the distance between Greenland and the American continent certainly cannot be urged as a serious objection to the discovery of North America by the Greenlander Leif, in the year 1002. The

colony of Vinland may have perished in the same or a similar manner as that of Greenland; and the Northmen, who were the only navigators of that age, could have but slight inducements to continue their attempts at settling upon the American coast, while the riches of the ancient world lay open to their predatory expeditions.

That the merits of Columbus and of Cabot are not impaired by this fact of a previous transient settlement on the shores of this continent, needs no argument. The interesting question, what the precise course was which the Norwegians pursued, and in what part of North America they established their colony, is attended with great difficulties, and would at any rate require a more extensive investigation than our limits allow.

After this account of the principal expeditions of the Northmen in the great Northern and Western Oceans, Mr. Wheaton gives a succinct and most interesting account of the state of society, the manners, religion, language, and literature of Iceland. It is one of the most remarkable events in the history of civilization, that long before the revival of learning in the south of Europe, and unaided by the classical remains of Greece and Rome, an independent literature grew up and flourished in the patriarchal republic of Iceland. Poetry was cultivated by the Skalds (or bards), who preserved and expanded the religious ideas of the people, and celebrated the heroic deeds of their ancestors and contemporaries. Among the Skalds there were many heroes, or faithful companions of their chieftains in their warlike expeditions and deadly feuds. Many of these ancient poems, many legends of the gods and the heroes of the North, being for a long time transmitted by oral tradition, have been preserved, particularly in two great collections, the first of which, called the elder or the poetic Edda, was made by the Icelander Sæmund Sigfussen, born in the year 1056. The prose Edda was compiled by Snorre Sturleson, born at Hvamm, on the west coast of Iceland, in the year 1178.

In the department of history in which Ari Frode, a friend and fellow-student of Sæmund Sigfussen, had first distinguished himself by his annals, Snorre Sturleson gained for himself the title of the "Herodotus of the North," by his great historical work "*Heimskringla*," or the Annals of the Kings of Norway. The learning and literary preëminence of Snorre,



the wealthy and ambitious chieftain whom the choice of the people had raised to the chief magistracy in his country, is one of the brightest evidences that the most active life is not incompatible with literary pursuits and attainments; that, on the contrary, the mind by intense devotion to one kind of employment may gain strength for different occupations, and find recreation and rest where others see only tasks and burthens.

The ancient religion of Scandinavia, which we learn chiefly from the elder Edda, is so vast a subject that we can present here only a few of the leading ideas which Mr. Wheaton has given in his work. We find among the Northmen a strong and inspiring faith in the immortality of the soul. As they looked upon heroic courage as the height of virtue, and upon cowardice as the extreme of vice, the best joys of heaven or *Valhalla*, were reserved for the brave who die the death of heroes. We will give here the last stanza of the death-song of Ragnar Lodbrok, which the Skalds supposed him to have sung in the dungeon full of serpents into which he had been thrown by the treacherous King Ella, and where he expired with a "laugh of defiance."

"Cease my strain! I hear them call  
Who bid me hence to Odin's hall!  
High seated in their blest abodes  
I soon shall quaff the drink of gods.  
The hours of life have glided by —  
I fall! but laughing will I die!  
The hours of life have glided by —  
I fall! but laughing will I die!" p. 154.

We find among the Northmen a general belief in higher powers which control the destinies of man. Some of the chieftains, however, carried their audacity so far as to defy the gods themselves.

"Thus we are told in the Sagas, of two famous heroes, who never sacrificed to the national deities, and yet spurned the yoke of Christianity. King Olaf the Saint demanded of one of them, who offered to enter his military service, of what religion he was? — 'My brother in arms and I,' said Gauthakon to the king, 'are neither Christians nor Pagans. We have no faith, but in our arms and our strength to vanquish our enemies, and those we have ever found sufficient.'" p. 138.

The popular religion supposed "the world to have been formed from the body of the giant Ymir, the rocks from his bones, the heavens from his skull, the clouds from his brains, and the sea from his blood." Wild as it is, we cannot but recognise in this gigantic cosmogony a perception of the organic harmony of the universe, or in the language of Greek philosophy, an intimate correspondence between the macrocosm, the world, and the microcosm man.

Although the Scandinavians believed in a multitude of gods, yet the thought of One God, the "All-Father," frequently enters into this multifarious polytheism. We find also a prophetic faith in the destruction of the present world; a temporary triumph of the wicked over the just, and a final and eternal victory of the good.

"The sun all black shall be,  
The earth sink in the sea,  
And every starry ray,  
From heaven fade away;  
While vapors hot shall fill  
The air round Ygdrasil,  
And flaming as they rise,  
Play towering to the skies."

After which a new heaven and a new earth shall appear, whilst two individuals of the human race, saved from the general destruction, shall perpetuate their species in the world thus renovated." pp. 65, 66.

After having given a general account of the literature of Iceland and of the religion which prevailed in the north of Europe, Mr. Wheaton resumes the narrative of the maritime expeditions of the Northmen to the south of Europe. They are characterized by that love of wild and perilous adventure and martial fury which in some was known to break out into actual madness, a *furor Martis*. These furious warriors were designated by the name of Bersærker. Piracy being then considered an honorable employment, we are told that even women of illustrious descent became pirates and roved the seas. Thus in the great battle of Bravalla, "two of the celebrated Skjoldmeyar, or Virgins of the Shield, of that time, Hetha and Visina, brought a reinforcement to the king of Zealand, the one of a hundred Amazonians like herself, the other a troop of savage Svends, armed with long swords and small bucklers of an azure hue."

The first incursions of the Northmen to Scotland, the Orcades, Hebrides, Ireland, and England, were soon followed by predatory expeditions to the coast of France, Spain, and Italy. Their repeated invasions of France began soon after the death of Charlemagne. His weak successors on the French throne being unable to resist the Northmen by the force of arms, commonly resorted to the pitiful expedient of tribute-money, by which they obtained only a transient relief. They also endeavoured to convert the invaders to Christianity, and many of them were found willing to be baptized. But we may judge of the character of many of these conversions from the following anecdote.

"On one occasion so many Normans presented themselves to be baptized, that there was not time to prepare a sufficient number of white robes, such as were worn by the neophytes. They were consequently obliged to use such coarse garments as could be found on the emergency. A Norman chieftain, who presented himself to receive the holy rite, exclaimed as they offered him such a dress, 'This is the twentieth time I have been baptized, and I have always received a fine white robe: such a sack is more fit for a base hind, than for a warrior like me; and were I not ashamed of my nakedness, I would cast it at your feet, and at the feet of your Christ!'" p. 177.

The incursions continued until the Norwegian Rollo, who had been banished from his native country, landed at Rouen, in France, with the purpose of forming permanent establishments for himself and his companions. Rollo took possession of Rouen and the surrounding country, and after having defeated the Franks in several battles, and ravaged the different provinces of France, he retired to Rouen, organized his Norman colony, and consolidated his power. "He tolerated the Christians in their worship, and they flocked in crowds to live under the dominion of a Pagan and barbarian, in preference to their own native and Christian prince, who was unwilling or incapable to protect them." The king, Charles the Simple, at last succeeded in establishing a permanent peace with Rollo by solemnly investing him and his heirs with the duchy of Normandy. Rollo took the oath of fealty, but

"He refused to submit to the degrading ceremony of kissing  
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the king's foot, but deputed one of his followers to perform this part of the homage in his stead. The insolent barbarian lifted up the king's foot, which he offered him to kiss, so high that Charles was thrown backward on the ground, to the great amusement of the spectators: an incident which would seem hardly credible, were it not vouched by the unanimous testimony of all the historians of the time, both Franks and Normans." p. 252.

How little difference of rank there existed among the Normans themselves is evident from the first negotiations between them and the Franks before the peace. The two hostile armies being encamped on the banks of the Eure, the envoys of the Franks cried out to the Normans on the opposite shore that they wished to speak to their chief. The Normans answered that they were "all equal."

After Rollo had become Count of Normandy, "he distributed among his companions the lands in the country which had been hitherto called Neustria, to be held of him as their duke and feudal lord. The foundations of the feudal system were thus laid in Normandy, which was perfected by the successors of Rollo, and afterwards transplanted in full vigor into England by William the Conqueror."

This new feudal aristocracy still exhibited some bright manifestations of the old Northern genius. The Normans distinguished themselves by a peculiar style of architecture, a romantic literature, Norman minstrelsy, and some rhyming chronicles recording the history of the nation. Among these, the *Roman de Rou* (Rollo) by Robert Wace, deserves particular notice as exhibiting a true picture of national manners.

Mr. Wheaton relates the history of the Normans until the battle of Hastings, which made William of Normandy master of England. In this latter part, the work of Thierry on the conquest of England by the Normans, has been diligently consulted and quoted by our author.

While the Normans were engaged in their wars with France, great changes took place in the Northern kingdoms themselves. The most remarkable of these changes was the conversion of the North to Christianity. Among the great exertions which were made for this object, the life and missionary labors of Ancharius, the Apostle of the North, the founder of schools, hospitals, and convents, the friend of the poor, form a striking contrast with the cruel zeal by which

Olaf Tryggvason, and the second Olaf, called the Saint, endeavoured to spread Christianity in the North, as well as with the politic faith of Canute the Great. The latter says, in his letter to the English clergy and people, concerning his pilgrimage to Rome, "And this I have done because I had learned from my teachers that the Apostle St. Peter received from the Lord the great power of binding and loosing, with the keys of the kingdom of Heaven. On this account I thought it highly useful to solicit his patronage with God."

We have endeavoured to set before our readers the general plan and character of this work, with some of the remarkable incidents related in it, not in order to satisfy, but rather to excite the curiosity of those who are not already acquainted with the book. It is not our intention to weigh the internal or external evidence of particular stories related by the Northern chroniclers; their historical value often consists not so much in the facts themselves as in the fidelity with which they portray the men and manners of the time, by which, as Mr. Wheaton justly observes, "even the most incredible legends become valuable proofs of popular opinion." His work is distinguished by a faithful study and judicious use of the authentic sources from which the history of the Northmen is to be derived. He enters into the peculiar manners and modes of thinking by which they were characterized with the true spirit of an historian. The anecdotes with which the current of events is richly interspersed, are selected with that correct appreciation of facts of which we find many striking proofs in the "Universal History" of Müller. A detailed account of a single action sometimes contains more valuable information than an abstract statement of the remarkable events of a whole period.

We hope that the example of Mr. Wheaton, who has availed himself with so much diligence and judgment of the abundant means of information which his residence at Copenhagen afforded him, may be imitated by those of our countrymen who are placed in similar situations. At this time, when we are so much in danger of receiving false impressions of human life, manners, and motives, from the dazzling pictures of novelists, from the unblushing misrepresentations of party writers, and the obtrusive self-complacency of travelling authors, we may heartily congratulate ourselves on the

appearance of a truly historical work, full of instruction and entertainment.\*

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ART. XIV. — *A Manual Hebrew and English Lexicon, including the Biblical Chaldee: designed particularly for Beginners.* By JOSIAH W. GIBBS, A. M., Professor of Sacred Literature in the Theological School in Yale College. Second Edition. Revised and Enlarged. New Haven. H. Howe. 1832. 8vo. pp. 236.

IN the first number of our Review we gave our opinion of Mr. Gibbs's Lexicon. We understand that it has been very carefully revised by the author for this second edition. To assist him in his work, he has had the last edition of the "Manual Hebrew Lexicon" of Gesenius, and also the "Thesaurus" of the same distinguished Hebrew scholar, as far as it has been received in this country. With these helps and others, Professor Gibbs has been enabled to improve the definitions of many words, both by extending them, and by rendering them more exact. This may be seen especially in regard to the use of the prepositions, a department of Hebrew lexicography, which has, till lately, received less attention than its importance deserves.

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ART. XV. — *An Appeal to the People of the United States.* By A FREEHOLDER. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1832. 8vo. pp. 88.

THE author of this Appeal, after some introductory remarks on political integrity and honor, which deserve to be deeply pondered, vindicates the claims of those American citizens who suffered from French spoliations previous to the treaty between France and the United States (which was fully ratified in December, 1801,) upon the government of the United States, for complete indemnity, principal and interest. The reasoning is grounded on the facts, that the French government was ready to recognise these claims, if the government of the United States would stipulate a full and entire

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\* In perusing the work we have met with a few misprints, such as *Заѣззны* instead of *Заѣззны*, and *Samaritians* instead of *Sarmatians*.

recognition of former treaties, such a stipulation, or a new treaty, being the alternative insisted on by France; and that the government of the United States, having by a new treaty abandoned the claims of its citizens on France, is in duty bound to indemnify them. The validity of these claims it appears has been acknowledged at different times by committees of Congress; but obstacles have been placed in the way of any favorable result to the sufferers. This appeal displays much learning upon the law of nations; contains a great deal of information concerning the political relations between France and the United States, and the negotiations that took place previously to the treaty of 1800, 1801; and addresses itself with great earnestness to that sense of justice and honor, which is to be looked for in citizens of an enlightened country.

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ART. XVI. — *A Treatise on the Education of Daughters.*

Translated from the French of FENELON, Archbishop of Cambray. Boston. Perkins & Marvin. 1831. 18mo. pp. 182.

THE name of Fenelon is a good passport to a work pertaining to moral and intellectual culture; and there is little reason to doubt that what he wrote on Education has been pretty thoroughly studied and used by English authors since his time. The greater part of this Treatise is alike applicable to both sexes, and contains little to which a Protestant can object,\* and little that is inapplicable to our republican institutions and manners. It displays the author's indulgent temper, mingled with his conscientious adherence to good and wholesome disciplinary rules and maxims; and imparts highly valuable lessons, with a few exceptions which some would choose to make, for the assistance of parents and guardians in their responsible relations to the tender objects of their care. This translation, which we have not compared with the original, generally reads very well as an English book.

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\* "Those passages in the original, which, from their reference to doctrines and ceremonies peculiar to the church of Rome, would be, to many readers, either unintelligible or productive of erroneous impressions, are here omitted." *Translator's Advertisement.*

ART. XVII. — *Lecture on Scientific Education, delivered before the Members of the Franklin Institute.* By JAMES R. LEIB, A. M. Philadelphia. Clark & Raser. 1831. 8vo. pp. 16.

MR. LEIB adverts to the division of Education into Physical, Moral, and Intellectual, but confines his discourse chiefly to the last, and particularly to what is termed scientific education. This is one among similar addresses before Institutes or Lyceums, calculated to draw more general attention, than can be expected from long and elaborate treatises, to the importance of intellectual improvement.

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ART. XVIII. — *Thoughts on Female Education.* By MRS. TOWNSHEND STITH. Philadelphia. Clark & Raser. 1831. 8vo. pp. 31.

AT the close of this publication, in which the author appeals most affectionately to the best principles and feelings of her sex, as subsidiary to the cultivation of the understanding and the heart, she says with a modesty and distrust, becoming indeed, but not called for by her readers; "Go forth — my little tribute! I cast thee now like bread upon the waters! . . . . Shouldst thou meet with one, amid the crowd, of kindred temper with my own, — to such bear my greeting — and receive my welcome!"

Such a tribute, intended to redeem any portion of our female community from neglect or abuse in regard to the privileges of education, cannot fail to be welcomed; especially when the means are pointed out for correcting past mistakes, and acquiring more just and elevated views of what belongs to the character of females as intellectual beings. This is done with great good sense and in an engaging manner by Mrs. Stith, who treats the subject of female education under the following heads: "1. In reference to individual happiness. 2. The use and value of the higher kinds of education to woman, in her relations to that small and particular circle — of family and friends — with whom her life is intimately connected. 3. Its influence upon the tone of society at large, — upon human improvement and civilization."



These "Thoughts" contain a very sound basis for a treatise on female education, which might be made attractive by such fullness of illustration, as the author's knowledge and observation would readily furnish. Her style has not indeed always the ease and gracefulness of one much practised in writing; although like her thoughts it is neither feeble nor overstrained, but often commendable for its beauty and strength.

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ART. XIX. — *Sketch of Adjutant General SUMNER's Address to the Charlestown Artillery Company, upon Delivering their Field-Pieces. November 23, 1831.* Charlestown. William W. Wheildon. 1832. 8vo. pp. 23.

THIS Address, besides what belonged directly to the occasion upon which it was delivered, comprises a spirited defence of a well regulated Militia System and a well trained militia, by the principal arguments, authorities, and illustrations, which can be brought to bear upon the subject.

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ART. XX. — 1. *Words of Truth.* By the Author of "The Well-spent Hour," and "The Warning." Cambridge. 1832. 18mo. pp. 249.

"WORDS OF TRUTH,"—a very good title, and followed by very good "words,"—the better because designed for children and young persons; to which class of readers we apprehend that truth is not only a much more wholesome nutriment than fiction, but, until corrupted by habit, much more acceptable;—truth, we mean, in the sense of the title-page,—truth of thought, of sentiment, of opinion, of principle, rather than merely of external fact. It is thus that this volume is made up; the form is sometimes that of parable and tale, but the substance and soul is exact truth. There is none of the false sentiment, the erroneous judgment concerning character, principle, and duty, the exaggerated coloring of life and manners and, human prospects, which falsify and debase the common romance, and we are sorry to add, render worthless and enervating so many of the little works

written for the improvement of the young. Even in this thoughtful day, when the true theory of education is so much studied and talked about, how many of the works designed for children, — written too by very well meaning people, — are nothing but small novels, grown-up romances in miniature. We rank them with baby balls and boys' parties, in which the evils of mature life and artificial society are made to come down to the innocent and pure, and torment them before their time. If we could ever advocate a censorship of the press, it would be for the purpose of preventing the publication of such trash. It should be abolished by the same act which should prohibit the sale of ardent spirits. We would allow no traffic but in "things true, honest, lovely, pure, and of good report." Under such an act, the author of the "Well-spent Hour" could have no cause to fear. There is nothing on her pages but what is true and healthful, tending to impart and sustain a high tone of moral sentiment, to build the character on elevated principle, and to raise up for us sons and daughters who shall adorn and bless society. And when we can add to this, that her writings have also been found to be among the most attractive of the class, we need not say how desirable we think it, that her little book should be read, and that she should write more.

2. *Days of Childhood.* By the Author of "Sophia Morton," &c. Boston. L. C. Bowles and B. H. Greene. 1832. pp. 121.
3. *The Trials of a School-Girl.* By the Author of "Days of Childhood," &c. Boston. L. C. Bowles and B. H. Greene. 1832. pp. 134.

THE first of these little books is intended for children learning to read. We have seldom seen any book of the kind which we should prefer to put into their hands. They will find very easy and very pleasant reading in it. After going through the book, in search of faults, we can find nothing to object to, except the play upon the word "box," on page 13, and the unfavorable notice taken of a dog, on page 9, and of the Italian, on page 116. We think no encouragement should be given to young Americans, to make puns, to be afraid of dogs, or to dislike Italians. This we say as grave reviewers. Children are generally the best critics of

books designed for them; and could the question on the merits of "Days of Childhood" be brought before a jury of "twelve infants good and true," we venture to affirm that the verdict would be favorable.

We love to read well-written books for children; there are few of Maria Edgeworth's works from which we have derived more pleasure than from those intended for the young; and we feel no shame in confessing, that we have read "The Trials of a School-Girl" with interest and pleasure. We recommend it to our young readers, as a good story, with a good moral, if they will but look for it. The author makes her girls talk and act like school-girls:—no small merit, we must allow, if we recollect how often (to borrow Goldsmith's illustration) we are forced to hear "little fishes talk like whales."

We hope to see more, and larger books of the kind, from the same pen. Could not the author tell us a story of the "Trials of a School-Boy?" We can assure her from sad experience, that they have no imaginary existence.

4. *The Child's Instructor, or Lessons on Common Things.*  
By S. R. Hall. Andover. Flagg & Gould. 1832.  
18mo. pp. 140.

THIS little book is divided into Three Parts, consisting of questions and answers. The First Part contains Easy Lessons in Arithmetic, upon the Inductive System. We very much question the author's judgment in the preliminary questions and answers, the object of which is to bring out the child's preference and decision in favor of study rather than idleness or amusement. Now every one knows how uncertain it is whether the child will be in a proper mood at any given time to do this with sincerity. Is it not much better, therefore, to watch the opportunity for this, when the child feels satisfied and pleased with what he has accomplished, rather than incur the danger of making him seem to be pleased with what he dislikes, and of saying he is fond of study, because the master expects him to say so.

The Second Part ranges all over the physical world. It aims to accomplish a vast deal too much, and therefore accomplishes very little. In Zoölogy, for instance, the author might for the most part have placed in succession the names

merely of the animals, leaving it to the teacher and child to find out what they can concerning them, to about as much purpose as he has given the pitiful accounts which are contained in his book; in which there is next to nothing of the habits of the animals, which afford the most important and entertaining information to children. Indeed, we can perceive very little use in such kind of teaching. We have selected Zoölogy merely as an example. There is an answer to one question inserted in this part, which to us is very offensive, and ought not to be found there without a good deal of explanation. — "What animal destroys most others? — Man takes the life of both stronger and weaker animals. Hence the poet calls him, 'Of half that live the butcher, and the tomb.'" The answer to the following question is quite too rhetorical for children or men. — "How does the world appear by the light of history? — Like an ocean kept in continual commotion by the influence of contrary winds." We think Mr. Hall himself will smile when the mazed child stares him in the face with this reply on his lips.

The Third Part of Mr. Hall's book, which is wholly his own, and which pertains to the nature of human happiness, the control of the passions, warnings against vices and sins, and motives for moral and religious purity, is very valuable. The answers to the questions are expressed with great simplicity; they bear favorable witness to the author's observation of the young, and to the influence which he must have gained over them, as a moral man and an amiable teacher.

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#### NOTE.

Several communications were received too late to be inserted in the present number of the Review. We mention this not to boast of the treasures in store for our readers, but merely to assure those who have furnished us with contributions for this work, that their favors have not been overlooked or neglected.

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#### ERRATUM IN No. II.

Page 147, line 4, for *expand* read *expand*.

## LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

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Not finding much foreign literary intelligence of recent date peculiarly interesting, we turn our attention in the present number to a subject deserving notice, at home.

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**HARVARD UNIVERSITY. — LIBRARY.** It appears by the Report of the President of this University to the Overseers in January last, that the Library consists of *forty thousand volumes*; that the building which now contains it is not sufficiently large to admit of a convenient arrangement of the books, and that by its being almost in contact with another building occupied by students, in which during the greater part of the year there are more than thirty fires, it is in danger of being consumed. Under these circumstances, he makes an urgent appeal through the Overseers to the public for relief from the present inconveniences and dangers, by provision for another building for the Library, to which the funds of the University are not competent. He does not approach the subject with any apologetical prelude; nor is there any occasion for this. The Library, as he maintains, is as truly *public* as it can be made. Its loss would be irreparable. There is no process by which it could be computed. Soon after this Report a petition based upon the same reasons, was presented by the President and Fellows of the College to the Senate and House of Representatives of Massachusetts for a *grant* sufficient to erect a suitable and secure building for the Library. This petition was committed in each board, and a report very honorable to the committee was soon brought before the Senate, with a resolve, granting to the College five thousand dollars a year in semi-annual payments for eight successive years. This resolve is indefinitely postponed by a vote in the House of Representatives; but though the grant therein reported will not be voted by that body during the present session of the General Court, we cannot believe that it will long be withheld by the government of our enlightened Commonwealth.

Books in the LIBRARY relating to AMERICAN HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, and STATISTICS, together with MAPS and CHARTS. On this subject we take the words of the above mentioned Report of the Senate's Committee.

"The American department was rich and curious, from books collected between the time when the Library was burnt, in 1764 and 1817; but in 1817 it received a great addition. The Hon. Israel Thorndike, in that year, gave a collection of books, which the well known Professor Ebeling, of Hamburg, had been nearly half a century in collecting in all parts of Europe, and which amounted to above

3,200 volumes. It related entirely to American History, Geography, and Statistics, and was the most valuable collection on those subjects, in the world. In 1823, its value was much increased by another important addition, the gift of Samuel A. Eliot, Esq. of above 1,200 volumes, exclusively on the same subjects, which had been carefully collecting during above twenty years at Paris, by Mr. D. R. Warden, formerly our Consul General in France. And finally, in 1830, the College, through the Hon. Francis C. Gray, one of the Corporation, then in London, were enabled to select from a rare and curious library of works relating to America, which had been collecting for about fifteen years, in Spain, France, and England, by Mr. Obadiah Rich, more than 400 volumes, not yet in the possession of the College. This last addition makes the department relating to America, consist of between six and seven thousand volumes, and leaves hardly a book or pamphlet to be desired. If this department, the most important that can exist in an American Library, were lost, it could never be replaced; for it is not only unequalled in the number of volumes and their value, but it contains many important works, not elsewhere to be found, either in Europe or America, and has besides been brought together by a concurrence of liberal benefactors and fortunate circumstances, which can never be expected to recur again.

"The Department of Maps and Charts is nearly the same. Mr. Brandes, a distinguished civilian of the Electorate of Hanover, began, nearly a century ago, a collection of Atlases, Maps, and Charts, which he continued to increase through his life, at a great expense of money and labor. On his death, it was bought by Professor Ebeling, who nearly doubled it both in numbers and value; so that on his death, in 1817, it amounted to above 11,000 Maps and Charts, and was superior to any collection in the world. It was bought by Mr. Thorndike, and given to Harvard College, and the whole collection now exceeds 13,000, leaving very little to be desired in what relates to the American Continent."

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MR. WARDEN, whose former collection of books, &c., pertaining to this Continent is mentioned in the above public document, as purchased by Mr. Eliot, and presented to the University in 1823, has recently published a Catalogue of a collection since made, entitled "*Bibliotheca Americana*, being a Choice Collection of Books relating to North America and the West Indies; including Voyages to the Southern Hemisphere, Maps, Engravings, and Medals." Paris. 1831. 8vo. pp. 140.

This is a Chronological Catalogue of about a thousand works, and a hundred and thirty maps, charts, and plans illustrating the history of America, which are offered to the public for sale. Although the Library of the University is peculiarly rich in works on America, the industry of Mr. Warden has included, in this, his second collection, many works, particularly of a recent date, that are not yet to be found in its Catalogue.

LIST OF BOOKS PUBLISHED AND IN PRESS,  
FOR FEBRUARY, 1832.

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*Carey & Lea, Philadelphia.*

Robert of Paris and Castle Dangerous, being the last of the Tales of My Landlord. By Sir Walter Scott. 3 vols. 12mo.

A General View of the Progress of Ethical Philosophy, chiefly during the 17th and 18th Centuries. By Sir James Mackintosh. 8vo.

*In Press.*

Encyclopædia Americana. Vol. 9.

American Quarterly Review, for March 1832.

*R. H. Small, Philadelphia.*

*In Press.*

An Analytical Digested Index to the Common Law Reports from the Time of Henry the Third to the Commencement of the Reign of George the Third. By Thomas Coventry and Samuel Hughes, Esqs.

*Nicklin & Johnson, Philadelphia.*

*In Press.*

Wentworth on Executors. From the 14th London edition; with Notes by Jeremy, and American Notes and References by E. D. Ingraham.

*Key, Meilke, & Biddle, Philadelphia.*

*In Press.*

Bichat's General Anatomy. Translated from the Paris edition of 1831. 2 vols. 8vo.

*Carey & Hart, Philadelphia.*

*In Press.*

A Catechism of Facts respecting the Nature, Cure, and Prevention of the Cholera. By A. Grenville, M. D., F. R. S., &c. 18mo.

A Practical Compendium of Midwifery. By Robert Gooch, M. D.

A Treatise on the Diseases of Women. By Robert Gooch, M. D. First American from the Fifth London edition. 8vo.

Rights of Industry. Being No. III. of the Working-Man's Companion. 18mo.

Whispers to a New Married Pair. By a Widowed Wife. 18mo.

College Evenings. 18mo.

*H. H. Porter, Philadelphia.*

Manual of Anatomy. By J. F. Meckel. Translated from the German into French by A. J. L. Jourdan and G. Breschet, and translated into English from the French by A. Sidney Doane. Vol. 1. 8vo.

Account of the Origin, Symptoms, and Cure of the Influenza. 8vo.  
The Visions of Quevedo. 18mo.

*J. & J. Harper, New York.*

The Smugglers. From the London edition. 2 vols. 12mo.  
Palestine, or the Holy Land. By the Rev. Michael Russell, LL. D. No. 27  
of the Family Library.

*E. Bliss, New York.*

Poems. By William Cullen Bryant. Edited by Himself. 12mo.

*S. Wood & Son, New York.*

*In Press.*

A Treatise on Pathological Anatomy. By G. Andral. Translated from the  
French, by Richard Townsend and William West. 8vo.

*Hezekiah Howe, New Haven.*

A Manual Hebrew and English Lexicon; including Biblical Chaldean. De-  
signed particularly for Beginners. By Josiah W. Gibbs, A. M., Professor of  
Sacred Literature in the Theological School in Yale College. Second Edition,  
revised and enlarged. 8vo.

M. Tullii Ciceronis ad Quintum Fratrem Dialogi Tres de Oratore, cum Ex-  
cerptis ex Notis Variorum. 12mo.

*In Press.*

An Introduction to Natural Philosophy, designed as a Text-Book for the Use  
of the Students in Yale College. Compiled from Various Authorities, by Deni-  
son Olmsted, Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy. Vol. 2. 8vo.

A Treatise on Mineralogy, consisting of the First Principles of the Science,  
and an Artificial Method, or a Series of Analytical Tables for the Determination  
of Minerals founded upon the Natural Properties of Form, Hardness, Specific  
Gravity, and Lustre. By Charles W. Shepard. Lecturer on Botany in Yale  
College. Part I.

*Lilly & Wait, Boston.*

*In Press.*

Maule and Selwin's Reports, condensed. Edited by T. Metcalf, Esq.  
New Clerk's Magazine.

A Practical Treatise on Breeding, Rearing, and Fattening all kinds of Do-  
mestic Poultry. By B. Moubray, Esq.

Library of Travels. To appear in volumes of about 300 pages each.

*Hilliard, Gray, & Co., Boston.*

A Treatise on the Law of Private Corporations. By J. K. Angell and Samuel  
Ames.

An Introduction to the History of Philosophy. By Victor Cousin. Trans-  
lated from the French, by H. G. Linberg.

Lectures before the American Institute. Vol. 2.

Laws of Massachusetts. Vol. 3. Part 2.

Latin Reader. Part 2. With English Notes.

Juvenal and Persius. With English Notes, by Frederick P. Leverett.

Legendre's Elements. A new stereotype edition. With Questions, and  
Three New Plates.

*In Press.*

Donnegan's Greek and English Lexicon.

Poems. By Miss Hannah F. Gould.



Enfield's Philosophy. A new Edition.

Judge Peck's Trial. 1 vol. royal 8vo.

Cæsar's Commentaries. With English Notes. A new stereotype edition.

Pickering's Greek and English Lexicon.

A Treatise on the Principles of Pleading in Civil Actions. By James Gould, LL. D.

*Carter & Hendee, Boston.*

*In Press.*

A Medical and Topographical History of the Cholera Morbus, with the Means of Prevention and Mode of Treatment. By Scouttetten, Member of Several Learned Societies. With an Appendix, containing the Report of the Royal Academy of Medicine at Paris, read September 17, 1831. Translated from the French, by A. Sidney Doane, A. M., M. D.

A Third Book for Reading and Spelling. By Samuel Worcester.

Contemplations of the Saviour, in a Series of Extracts from the Gospel; with accompanying Meditations and Hymns. By S. Greenleaf Bulfinch.

*Richardson, Lord, & Holbrook, Boston.*

Hutton's Book of Nature Laid Open; with Questions adapting it the Use of Schools and Families. By the Rev. J. S. Blake.

*In Press.*

A Commentary on the Holy Bible, from Henry and Scott, with Additional Explanatory Notes, from Doddridge, Patrick, Poole, Lowth, and other eminent Writers.

A Universal Pocket-Gazetteer, corrected to the Present Time, with the United States' Census of 1830.

*Crocker & Brewster, Boston.*

Bates's Harmony of the Divine Attributes, with an Introduction. By Dr. Alexander. 12mo.

Essay on the Application of Abstract Reasoning to the Christian Doctrines, originally published as an Introduction to Edwards on the Will. By the Author of "Natural History of Enthusiasm." 12mo.

*Gray & Bowen, Boston.*

Life of Gouverneur Morris. By Jared Sparks. 3 vols. 8vo.

Grammaire Italienne. Par H. W. Longfellow. 12mo.

Annual Register for 1829-1830. Vol. 5.

Christian Examiner. No. 49.

*In Press.*

Saggi de' Novellieri Italiani d' Ogni Secolo. Da H. W. Longfellow. 12mo.

North American Review. No. 75.

Davenport's Biographical Dictionary. With Additions and Improvements. 8vo.

*L. C. Bowles, Boston.*

*In Press.*

Only Son. By the Author of "Early Days."

Five Years of Youth. By Miss H. Martineau.

Beard's Sermons. Vol. 2. 8vo.

Sermons, Practical and Doctrinal. By Bernard Whitman. 12mo.

*Dutton & Wentworth, Boston.*

Report of Commissioners appointed under a Resolve of the Legislature of Massachusetts to superintend the Erection of a Lunatic Hospital at Worcester.

*William W. Wheildon, Charlestown.*

Sketch of Adjutant-General Sumner's Address to the Charlestown Artillery Company.

*Hilliard & Brown, Cambridge.*

Theological Common-Place Book. 4to.

The Captivi of Plautus. 18mo.

*In Press.*

Owen Feltham's Resolves. 16mo. Vol. 4 of the Old English Prose Writers.

Life of John Frederic Oberlin. With a Preface by the Rev. Prof. Henry Ware, Jun.

A Friendly Review of Remarkable Extracts and Popular Hypotheses relating to the Sufferings of Christ. By Noah Worcester, D. D. 12mo.

*Flagg & Gould, Andover.*

The Child's Instructor, or Lessons on Common Things. By S. R. Hall. 18mo.

*Charles Whipple, Newburyport.*

Waterland on Regeneration. Second Edition.

Guide to Piety. Min. 4to.

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THE Editor and Publishers of this Review are desirous of giving a complete Monthly List of Books and Pamphlets published in the United States, in each number of the Review. The agents of this work, and all publishers of books, are therefore requested to give notice, by the middle of every month, of all their new publications, and of such works as they may have in the press, to the publishers, Hilliard & Brown, in order that they may be inserted in the Monthly List, and may be noticed, as soon as possible, in the Review.

THE  
AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW.

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APRIL, 1832.

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ART. I. — *A Memoir of Sebastian Cabot ; with a Review of the History of Maritime Discovery. Illustrated by Documents from the Rolls, now first published.* Philadelphia. Carey & Lea. 1831. 8vo. pp. 327.

THE writer of this volume discovers all the diligence and accuracy of a German student. It is an attempt, in an age of much loose writing in matters pertaining to history, to remove the mass of error that has been gradually accumulating around facts and events of a remote period, that the truth may shine forth with its original lustre.

Readers in general have but little opportunity or inclination to investigate any point of history, by tracing back a disputed question, through various authors, to its source. They are apt to rest satisfied with the first relation they read ; and the impression thus made, which may be historically false, is not easily effaced. Writers themselves who aim to instruct others are not sufficiently careful, but often copy from preceding authors statements and conclusions that are full of error. The general historian gives them his sanction, and they find their way into the compends and abridgments that are the *pabulum* of the great body of readers, till in process of time they are uttered with the voice and authority of truth.

The critical inquirer is often astonished to find how much of fiction or of incorrect relation is involved in what passes current for genuine history. Thus, mistakes in names of persons and places, of dates and events, are handed down from generation to generation ; and it is only by an examination, often long and laborious, of various successive writers on the subject, and by comparing one with another, together with

such collateral aids as may be obtained, that the correction can be made.

In the work before us the author has endeavoured to vindicate the fame of Sebastian Cabot, by pointing out and correcting those passages in preceding histories that detract in any measure from his merit as a man of science and a discoverer. And the attempt is highly praiseworthy, as belonging to the truth of history, and especially the history of our own country and continent. If then the author has been tolerably successful, he deserves our thanks; and if his proofs amount even to demonstration, as it appears to us they do in most instances, he has the highest claim to regard.

It would carry us far beyond our limits to give a very particular account of this work, and serve up the evidence on which the author relies to support his various positions. We must therefore advise the zealous student of history to examine the book for himself; while we shall strive to perform our duty to our readers by mentioning some of the principal points in which the author takes to task his numerous predecessors in the field, with but little ceremony.

The first voyage of Columbus produced a powerful sensation throughout the west of Europe. Numerous adventurers rushed forward to follow in the path which he, like a prophet of old, had marked out to the bold spirit of enterprise. To Columbus, whose name we hold in deep veneration, belongs all the glory, in an age of ignorance and false philosophy, of the mighty conception of the existence of land in the western hemisphere; a conception not proceeding from an idle exercise of the imagination, but from a long and severe process of reasoning. The honor of the first design and the first execution is exclusively his; he is chief among the benefactors of mankind. Nor does it detract from his merit, that others, who were illuminated by the rays of light emitted from his mind, pushed their discoveries farther. Whatever praise is due to them, it is inferior to his.

At the same period there were many Venetians residing in London, principally engaged in commerce. Among these was John Cabot, with his three sons, Lewis, Sebastian, and Sanctius. It was supposed that a shorter route to India might be found by sailing northwest as far as Cathay, the northern part of China, and thence taking a southerly direction. Accordingly a patent was granted by Henry the Sev-

enth to Cabot and his sons, dated March 5, 1496, authorizing them to undertake an expedition. In this expedition the father probably embarked with his son Sebastian, who was then a very young man. Modern historians have bestowed all the praise upon the father. They have represented him as "a man perfectly skilled in all the sciences requisite to form an accomplished mariner." This praise is bestowed on the authority of Hakluyt, from whose work, as cited by our author, we make the following extract :

"A note of *Sebastian Cabot's* first discoverie of part of the Indies taken out of the latter part of Robert Fabian's Chronicle, not hitherto printed, which is in the custodie of M. John Stow, a diligent preserver of antiquities.

"In the 13 yeere of K. Henry the 7 (by means of one *John Cabot, a Venetian*, which made himself *very expert and cunning in knowledge of the circuit of the world, and islands of the same, as by a sea card and other demonstrations reasonable he shewed*), the king caused to man and victuall a ship at Bristow to search for an island which he said he knew well was rich and replenished with great commodities." (Hakluyt, vol. iii. p. 9.)

In the above extract, it will be remarked, all the praise is given to the father, as possessed of much scientific knowledge. But our author shows that it belongs to Sebastian, and traces very satisfactorily the gross error of Hakluyt, who it seems did not see "*Fabian's Chronicle*," but derived his information from Stow, a man in a humble walk of life, but very diligent, faithful, and accurate, as an antiquary. To show the progress of Hakluyt's error, we will cite a few passages from our author, who devotes a number of pages to the examination.

"Fortunately we are not left to mere conjecture. In 1605, appeared Stow's own '*Annals*.' The simplicity and good faith of this writer are so well known, as well as his intense reverence for whatever bore the stamp of antiquity, that we have no fear of his having committed what in his eyes would have been sacrilege by changing one syllable of the original. Let it be remembered then that Hakluyt relies exclusively on what he obtained from Stow; and in reading the following passage from the '*Annals*,' we find what doubtless passed into Hakluyt before it was subjected to his perilous correction. It occurs at page 804 of the edition of 1605, and at page 483 of

that of 1631. 'This year one *Sebastian Gaboto, a Genoa's sonne borne in Bristol*, professing himself to be expert in the knowledge of the circuit of the world and islands of the same, as by his charts and other reasonable demonstrations he shewed, caused the king to man and victual a ship,' &c. . . . Thus we have the best evidence that the contemporary writer, whoever he may have been, made not the slightest allusion to the father. Bacon, Speed, Thuanus, &c., all furnish the same statement.

"The very phrase; 'a Genoa's son,' employed to designate Sebastian Cabot, may be considered as the not unnatural mistake of a contemporary, referring as it does to the country of Columbus, with whose fame all Europe was ringing from side to side." pp. 43, 44.

The author then goes on to "trace the progress of Hakluyt's perversion." In 1582, Hakluyt published an early work, entitled "*Divers Voyages to America*," and in this work he says, he derives his information from *Mr. John Stow, citizen*; but he changes the words, *a Genoa's son* into *a Venetian*. Afterwards, when he hears of the second patent to John Cabot, in 1498, "he makes a further alteration of what he had received from Stow. Instead of *a Venetian*, as in 1582, when he had the memorandum first before him, it becomes *one John Cabot, a Venetian*, thus effecting at the two stages of alteration, a complete change of what he had received; and yet for the statement as there finally made, Fabian and Stow continue to be cited."

Our readers will also observe in the extract from Hakluyt, that he retains the original title of the passage, "*A note of Sebastian Cabot's first discoverie*," &c., which our author supposes was the explanatory memorandum at the head of Stow's communication. Its incongruity with the whole passage, where *Sebastian* is not once mentioned, is manifest, and sufficiently proves the carelessness of Hakluyt in this respect.

Hakluyt also mentions in a note to this voyage, that three savages were brought from the newly discovered country, *mentioned by the foresaid Robert Fabian*. But our author renders it much more probable that this was in the year 1502. Indeed, Hakluyt himself in his first work, to which we have alluded, places this occurrence under the year 1502, which he alters in his larger work to 1498. The matter, however, is of but little consequence, any further than to

place us on our guard against relying with too much confidence on his statements.

To Sebastian Cabot, then, belongs the commendation of being skilled in maritime science. But our author, with but little show of reason or probability, goes so far as to doubt whether John Cabot accompanied the expedition. The evidence on the other side is satisfactory, although it may be true that he only embarked in the project as a mercantile enterprise; for "we have not a tittle of evidence as to his character or past pursuits, except that he came to London to follow the trade of merchandise. All that is said about his knowledge of the sphere — his perfect acquaintance with the sciences, &c., is merely an amplification of the remarks of Fabian as to Sebastian Cabot, the great object of whose project was to verify his simple but bold proposition that by pushing to the north, a shorter route might be opened to the treasures of Cataya."

Other important questions are discussed by our author, relating to the most northerly latitude of Sebastian Cabot's first voyages, and to his claim to the honor of first discovering the continent. For if he touched upon the coast of Labrador, June 24, 1497, the day he first came in sight of land, he is entitled to the glory of prior discovery, as Columbus did not reach the continent, till August 1, 1498.

How far north then did Cabot sail on the first voyage? There is much confusion in Hakluyt on this point, and our author criticizes him with no measured severity. Most writers since his time, and relying on his authority, have assigned the *fifty-sixth* or *fifty-eighth degree* as the highest latitude reached by Cabot after discovering land. But it is abundantly shown in the "Memoir," that he sailed north and west as high as  $67\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  north latitude. This appears from Cabot's own letter to Ramusio, contained in that writer's "Collection of Voyages." It appears also from divers other authorities cited in the "Memoir," a few of which we will lay before our readers.

"'Sebastianus Gabottus, sumptibus Regis Angliæ, Henrici VII, per septentrionalem plagam ad Cataium penetrare voluit. Ille primus Cuspidem Baccalaos detexit (quam hodie Britones et Nortmanni nautæ la coste des Molues, hoc est, Asselorum marinorum oram appellant) atque etiam ulterius usque ad 67

*gradum versus polum articum.*' (De Bry, *Grands Voyages*, iv. p. 69.)

"*Belle-forest*, in his *Cosmographie Universelle*, A. D. 1576, (tom. ii. p. 2175), makes the same statement.

"In the treatise of Chauveton, '*Du Nouveau Monde*,' published at Geneva, in 1579, he says, (p. 141) '*Sebastian Gabotto entreprit aux despens de Henry VII., Rex d'Angleterre, de chercher, quelque passage pour aller en Câtay par la Tramontaine. Cestuy la descouvrit la pointe de Baccalaos, (que les mariniers de Bretagne et de Normandie appellent La Coste des Molues) et plus haut jusqu'a soizante sept degrez du Pole.*' " pp. 26, 27.

Churchyard, in 1578, says,

" 'I find that Gabotta was the first, in King Henry VII.'s days, that discovered this frozen land or seas from *sixty-seven towards the North*, and from thence towards the South, along the coast of America to thirty-six degrees and a half,' &c." p. 27.

The authority of Herrera is also cited to the same effect, as well as that of Lord Bacon, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, and others; and we may add that of our own learned writers, Belknap and Holmes. The author then proceeds to show that Cabot penetrated Hudson's Bay.

It is generally thought that Cabot was prevented from proceeding farther by the mutiny of his crew, and that on returning, he sailed along the Atlantic coast to the thirty-sixth degree of North latitude, when he was obliged to return to England on the failure of provisions. Our author, however, questions this at some length, and assigns it to a subsequent voyage. One circumstance that he mentions in a note (p. 79), viz. an allowance by the king, August 10, 1497, "To hym that found the New Isle £ 10," tends to strengthen the doubt, especially if it be established, that on this first voyage Cabot reached the latitude of  $67\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ . But whether it was on this or a subsequent voyage, does not touch the question of prior discovery. For it is admitted on all sides, that he reached on the first voyage the latitude of  $56^{\circ}$ , at least; and this embraces a large part of the territory of Labrador.

As we have before remarked, a principal question discussed in the "Memoir" relates to land first discovered by Cabot. We believe it has been generally supposed to be Newfoundland. But our author is of a different opinion, and examines the



point elaborately, and arrives at the conclusion that it was the coast of Labrador on our northern continent that Cabot first reached in the good ship *Matthew* of Bristol. If this be so, Sebastian Cabot preceded both Columbus and Americus Vesputius in reaching the Main.

Sebastian Cabot, on his return from his first voyage, published a map or card of his discovery. An Extract from this is referred to by Hakluyt and Purchas, as "hung up in the privy gallery at Whitehall;" which renders it probable that they never saw the original. This Extract was probably executed after Sebastian's death. A part of it is as follows.

"Anno Domini 1497, Joannes Cabotus Venetus, et Sebastianus illius filius eam terram fecerunt perviam, quam nullus prius adire ausus fuit, die 24 Junii, circiter horam quintam bene manè. Hanc autem appellavit Terram primum visam, credo quod ex mari in eam partem primum oculos iniecerat. Namque ex adverso sita est insula, eam appellavit insulam Divi Joannis, hac opinor ratione, quod aperta fuit eo qui dies est sacer Divo Joanni Baptistæ." pp. 51, 52.

In the remainder there is a general description of the natives, and also of the soil, animals, &c. Hakluyt in rendering the Extract into English has been in several instances too free in his translation. Thus in the Extract it is said that the land first seen was absolutely sterile, "*tellus sterilis est.*" In the translation, "the soil is barren *in some places.*" In the Extract, "*neque ullos fructus affert.*" In the translation, "and yieldeth *little* fruit." This applies, as our author remarks, with more force to Labrador than to Newfoundland. So also the statement in the Extract that the "*terra primum visa*" is "full of white bears, and deer larger than ours."

"Now the haunts of the white bear are on the coast of Labrador, and they do not come so far south as Newfoundland in numbers to warrant such a description. The account, too, given by Peter Martyr, of the manner in which these bears catch the fish, which is their favorite food, strikingly recalls the lively description of similar scenes by Mr. Cartwright, in his '*Journal, during a residence of nearly sixteen years on the coast of Labrador.*' It is remarkable that most English writers have been rather reluctant to copy Cabot's representation on this point, supposing it inapplicable to Newfoundland, where,

though white bears may be occasionally seen, they are not 'native here and to the manner born.'” pp. 54, 55.

Another argument that our author derives from the Extract is, that the “terra primum visa” being discovered on the 24th of June, and the island the same day (St. John’s day), it is not probable “that Cabot on the very day of the discovery could have penetrated so far.” And the description is inapplicable, “*that island which lieth out before the land.*” It appears also that the present St. John was named by the celebrated French navigator Jaques Cartier, at a subsequent period, June 24, 1534.

“But the most important and conclusive piece of testimony is furnished by Ortelius,” (a highly distinguished geographer,) “who had the map of Cabot before him, and who places an island of St. John in the latitude of 56° immediately on the coast of Labrador. This is doubtless the one so designated by Cabot.” p. 55.

A passage in the second patent in favor of John Cabot, made by Henry the Seventh, February 3, 1498, tends to strengthen the supposition. This patent, which our author had the honor of discovering after a tedious search of several weeks in the Rolls Chapel, and of first publishing to the world (p. 75) is of considerable value in an historical point of view. But we must confine ourselves to the passage alluded to. The patent is granted to Cabot with liberty to take six vessels, “and them convey and lede to the *Londe and Isles* of late founde by the said John in oure name and by our commaundement,” and take on board the ships all such persons as wish to “goo and passe with him in the same shippes to the *seid Londe or Isles*,” without any hindrance to their passing with the said John “to the *seid Londe or Isles.*”

“Surely,” says our author, “the importance of this document cannot be exaggerated. It establishes conclusively, and for ever, that the American continent was first discovered by an expedition commissioned to ‘set up the banner’ of England. It were idle to offer an argument to connect this recital of the 3d of February, 1498, with the discovery of the 24th of June, 1497, noted on the old map hung up at Whitehall. Will it not be deemed almost incredible that the very Document in the Records of England, which recites the great discovery, and

plainly contemplates a scheme of colonization, should, up to this moment, have been treated by her own writers as the one which first gave the permission to go forth and explore?" pp. 75, 76.

This patent, it is added, is a complete answer to foreign writers who have argued against the claim of England, on the ground that the patent, as was supposed, took no notice of discoveries alleged to have been made the year before.

The words *primum visam* in the Extract, Hakluyt translates "*Prima vista*, that is to say, *first seen*, because, as I suppose, it was that part whereof they had the first sight from sea." This Extract, as it was called, was probably made after Cabot's death, and it will be observed that the suggestion is given only as a conjecture. Nor is the name *Prima Vista*, or *Terra primum visa*, mentioned in any of the various conversations of Cabot. The expression, therefore, is far from being an argument in favor of Newfoundland; and furthermore the author says that "The map of the New World which accompanies the copy of Hakluyt's work in the king's library, has the following inscription on the present Labrador; 'This land was discovered by John and Sebastian Cabote for Kinge Henry VII., 1497.'"

Besides the authority thus derived, we are called to notice that the *island which stands out from the land* ("ex adverso sita est insula") was discovered on the 24th of June, and was therefore named St. John. This it would be fair to suppose was first discovered, and the designation *Prima Vista*, or *First Sight*, would hardly be bestowed on a point subsequently seen, even though on the same day. And we agree with the author that Cabot would not have quitted his main discovery and stood out to sea to examine a small island, or have dedicated to the Saint the inferior and later discovery.

On the whole, there is no good reason to believe that Cabot gave this name to his first discovery. The respective terms, *Newfoundland*, *Newfoundlands*, *Terra Nova*, or *New Land*, were inserted on the old maps, and were employed by the early writers to designate generally the English discoveries in the North.

We have, we believe, taken notice of the principal arguments which our author adduces in support of Sebastian Cabot's claim to prior discovery. And we are reminded, however imperfectly they may have been set forth by us, that we

must hasten to a close, after a very general account of the remainder of the "Memoir."

In 1498, Sebastian Cabot made a second voyage to the continent, and attempted to plant a colony on the coast; and it was then probably that he penetrated Hudson's Bay, and gave English names to several places he discovered. The following year our author supposes that he visited Maracaibo; but the evidence leaves it very doubtful.

For several subsequent years we have no account of Cabot, in consequence of the unfortunate disappearance of his *maps and discourses*, some time after his death. These were ready for publication; but it is supposed by our author they were fraudulently concealed or destroyed to answer the views of Philip of Spain, Queen Mary's husband.

In 1512, we find him invited by Ferdinand of Spain to reside in that country; where he at first held the office of Captain in the royal service, and was afterwards a member of the Council of the Indies, and made a general revision of maps and charts under direction of the king. On the death of Ferdinand he returned to England, and was immediately employed again in search of a north-west passage to India. A minute account of the various discrepancies in relation to this voyage is given in the "Memoir"; and the result at which the author arrives is, that Cabot was frustrated in his attempt by the conduct of the master and mariners, — by which means Spain succeeded in first reaching Peru.

The estimation in which Cabot was held, was deservedly great. In 1518, soon after returning from the voyage just mentioned, he was appointed by the Emperor Charles the Fifth, Pilot-Major of Spain, and again took up his residence in that country. For several years he exercised this office doubtless to the acceptance of the Emperor. But circumstances again called him to more active duty. The discovery by Magellan of the Strait of that name immediately turned the attention of adventurers and navigators to a route to India in that direction; and a company was formed in Spain, and a fleet was equipped, of which Cabot was appointed Captain General by permission of the Emperor. The object of the company was to explore the coast of South America, particularly the western side, passing through the Straits of Magellan, and afterwards to proceed to the Moluccas with which the Portuguese carried on a very lucrative commerce.

Several causes, direct and indirect, intervened, which finally prevented the expedition from reaching the Moluccas. After the company was formed, and before the ships sailed, a treaty was made between Spain and Portugal, and it was rumored at the time that one of its articles stipulated an abandonment of the Moluccas on the part of Spain. Cabot sailed in April, 1526. On reaching the American continent some of the leaders in the other vessels, jealous of the fame and authority of Cabot, spread disaffection among the men, which at last burst out in a mutiny. The commander, with a promptness and energy for which he was remarkable, seized three of the leaders, men of rank and family in Spain, placed them in a boat, and ordered them to be put on shore. These men afterwards reached Spain full of bitter complaints against Cabot; but the Emperor justified his conduct. He soon after reached the La Plata and proceeded up the river, according to Eden's account, three hundred and fifty leagues. This course our author supposes was in consequence of the mutiny, and of the loss of one of his ships, which induced him to delay proceeding round Cape Horn till he should hear from Spain. From the La Plata he proceeded up the river Puraná, and afterwards entered the Paraguay. While here, Diego Garcia, a Portuguese, entered the river. He had sailed from Spain a few months after Cabot. While in the neighbourhood of Cabot, he brought on by the bad conduct of some of the persons connected with the expedition a general attack by the natives upon the Spaniards, by which many lives were lost, and an inveterate hatred ensued between the parties.

While at the La Plata and in the vicinity, Cabot made numerous researches into the country, and sent to the Emperor a detailed report, which our author supposes to be still in existence. Another attack from the natives obliged him to take refuge on board his ships and proceed to Spain. This was in 1531. He resumed the office of Pilot-Major, and held it till 1548, when probably by reason of increasing years and affection for his native country he returned to England for the last time, and settled in Bristol. Edward the Sixth granted him a pension of two hundred marks; and afterwards made him a present of £ 200 for his agency in breaking down the *stilyard*, an odious monopoly in favor of foreign merchants, in the exporting of English cloths.

After Cabot's return to England, although advanced in years, he continued actively engaged for the public welfare. By the operation of the *stilyard* English trade and English merchants were in a sad condition. Cabot was consulted by the principal merchants and others, and he strongly recommended a voyage for the discovery of the northern part of the world. An expedition was set on foot of which Sir Hugh Willoughby was commander. The instructions for the voyage were prepared by the veteran Cabot, in 1553, when at the age of seventy-five. They are very full, and discover a reflecting, sagacious mind, and enlarged knowledge. The sad fate of Sir Hugh is well known to our readers. But another result of the expedition was the discovery of Russia with which a commercial intercourse was speedily formed, and trade forthwith revived in England. An *Association of Merchant Adventurers* was formed, and Cabot was made Governor for life, as the "chiefest setter forth" of the enterprise. After the death of king Edward, Cabot met with cold treatment from Philip and Mary, which may admit of an easy explanation, although not to their advantage. But we pass from it and quote the concluding passage of our author upon the noble subject of the "Memoir."

"The date of his death is not known, nor except presumptively, the place where it occurred. From the presence of Eden we may infer that he died in London. It is not known where his remains were deposited. The claims of England in the new world have been uniformly, and justly, rested on his discoveries. Proposals of colonization were urged, on the clearness of the title thus acquired and the shame of abandoning it. The English language would probably be spoken in no part of America, but for Sebastian Cabot. The commerce of England and her navy are admitted to have been deeply — incalculably — his debtors. Yet there is reason to fear that in his extreme age the allowance which had been solemnly granted to him for life was fraudulently broken in upon. His birthplace we have seen denied. His fame has been obscured by English writers, and every vile calumny against him eagerly adopted and circulated. All his own Maps and Discourses 'drawn and written by himself' which it was hoped might come out in print, 'because so worthy monuments should not be buried in perpetual oblivion,' have been buried in perpetual oblivion. He gave a continent to England: yet no one can point to the few feet of earth she has allowed him in return!" pp. 219, 220.

The Second Book of the work contains "A Review of the History of Maritime Discovery," with some account of the third voyage of Columbus, and voyages of Cortereal, Cortes, Gomez, Frobisher, and Hudson, with various corrections of preceding authors.

The account we have given of the "Memoir," although somewhat extended, is necessarily imperfect. For the work goes very much into detail, and the author examines a great variety of points. Were it not for the value of the materials, we should be inclined to find fault with his style, and still more with his arrangement, which is not always methodical and satisfactory. His purpose is praiseworthy; for it is the truth of history. And in pursuance of his object he in almost every page, calls in question the correctness of historians, points out the errors of haste and ignorance, traces them to their source, and generally demonstrates the truth of his own propositions. It is manifestly a work of very severe labor, prepared after long and diligent research, — after persevering examination, and comparison of a great number of books pertaining to the subject, with access to the best libraries, and with the advantage of an acquaintance with the Latin, French, Spanish, and Italian languages. The "Memoir" was first published in England; but we have heard the intimation, we know not on how good authority, that the author is an American.\* Whoever he is, he understands himself and his subject, and we hope he will be encouraged to fill up the extensive plan of which, as he intimates in the Preface, the present "Memoir" forms but a small part. Especially at this time are such efforts important and valuable, in order to counteract the mass of historical error, that is pouring forth from the press, like a rushing tide, in popular histories, in abridgments, Cabinet Libraries, and Cyclopædias, which by their pleasing style lead captive the many. The whole value of

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\* The author of this article thoroughly examined the "Memoir," and wrote this review, without knowing the name or the country of the author of the "Memoir." We presume that we are committing no offence in saying that it is understood to be the work of Mr. — Biddle of Philadelphia. An interesting fact also, connected with the authorship and the subject of the "Memoir" is, that Holbein's portrait of Sebastian Cabot, described in the Appendix (pp. 317–319), has been purchased by Mr. Biddle, who has so successfully illustrated the history of the man. — *Ed.*

history depends upon its truth. It should be a mirror reflecting with spirit, and above all with accuracy, the character of persons and events of former ages. We would not be deluded with false images received through an imperfect or distorted medium. We would resist the tendency of the present age to numerous and hasty efforts in matters pertaining to history, and would rather beseech writers to remember the advice of Horace, which applies equally as well to prose as to poetry.

“Nonumque prematur in annum:  
Membranis intus positis, delere licebit  
Quod non edideris. Nescit vox missa reverti.”

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ART. II. — *Annals of Tryon County; or the Border Warfare of New York during the Revolution.* By W. W. CAMPBELL. New York. J. & J. Harper. 1831. 8vo. pp. 267.

THIS volume is indebted to the attractive matter which it contains, rather than to the graces of style, or perspicuity and skill shown in the arrangement of its parts, for the interest excited by its perusal. The author tells us, that the formation of a literary society at Cherry Valley, in 1830, whose principal object was “to collect facts illustrative of the natural and civil history of that section of country,” led to the composition of the work. It is manifest that he has had access to very valuable materials for the execution of his purpose; and many original documents are introduced into the body of the volume, which, although destructive in a considerable degree of the continuity of the narrative, are of the highest interest, and amply compensate for the interruption they occasion. We object, however, *totis viribus*, to this mode of constructing history. It is too much like shifting the labor on the reader, that properly appertains to the author. It is giving the materials of history, rather than history itself,—making *every man his own historian*, rather than furnishing the work complete to our hands. The advice we should offer to writers of this class is, to place as many documents as they please in an Appendix, but to leave the text unbroken.

Tryon County owed its name to the distinguished tory



who was Governor of New York at the breaking out of the revolutionary war. The name was afterwards changed to Montgomery, which is now borne by a portion of the old county. It embraced all the western part of the Province, commencing at a line about forty miles beyond Albany. The settlements were chiefly along the banks of the Mohawk, and in the beautiful valleys bordering, at unequal distances, upon that river. The first European inhabitants who planted on this fertile territory, were a colony of Germans from the Palatinate, who, in the early part of the last century, established themselves in several places along the Mohawk. In 1722, they had penetrated as far as the German Flats, near the site of the present flourishing village of Herkimer, about ninety miles from Albany. The towns of Oppenheim, Palatine, &c., were founded by them. It is not on this people, however, that Mr. Campbell bestows his attention. Cherry Valley, the scene of his nativity and early life, is to him the centre of attraction, and the principal theatre of the events he records. His excursions to the valley of the Mohawk are, however, numerous, in which he gathers up many a sorrowful, as well as gallant, tale of border warfare. Cherry Valley is situated about ten miles from the Mohawk on the south, in one of the most romantic spots of that delightful region, surrounded by scenery of a grand and striking character. The whole valley from which the town derives its name, is sixteen miles in length, and varies from one quarter of a mile to a mile in breadth. The chain of highlands on the east belongs to the Catskill range, and rises at the distance of three miles from the village, to the height of two thousand feet. From this summit, called Mount Independence, a wide and charming prospect opens, of unsurpassed beauty and extent. Such are some of the natural features of Cherry Valley.

The settlement of the Valley was commenced in the summer of 1740, by Mr. John Lindesay, a Scotch gentleman, who obtained a patent for a considerable extent of territory, and removed thither with his family from New York. The first winter of Mr. Lindesay's residence at Cherry Valley was a peculiarly hard one, and not having made a sufficiently ample provision for it, and being cut off by distance and an almost impassible barrier of mountain from all intercourse with the Mohawk settlements, they had before them the dreadful

death by famine. Fortunately a solitary Indian came among them, who readily undertook to transport supplies on his back from the distant settlements for their relief, and actually performed this service through the winter. The following year the Rev. Samuel Dunlop, a gentleman of education and worth, was induced by Mr. Lindesay to join the settlement, together with about thirty persons of the Scottish-Irish colony at Londonderry, New Hampshire. The following account of the origin of the name of the Valley, and other circumstances connected with its settlement, is not without interest.

"Mr. Dunlop, being engaged in writing some letters, inquired of Mr. Lindesay where he should date them, who proposed the name of a town in Scotland; Mr. Dunlop, pointing to some fine wild cherry trees, and to the valley, replied, 'Let us give our place an appropriate name, and call it Cherry Valley,' which was readily agreed to; it was for a long time the distinguishing name of a large section of country, south and west. Soon after the arrival of these settlers, measures were taken for the erection of a saw-mill and grist-mill, and a building for a school-house and church. Mr. Dunlop left Ireland under an engagement of marriage with a young lady of that country, and having made the necessary arrangements for his future residence in Cherry Valley, returned to fulfil it. This engagement was conditional; if he did not return in seven years from the time of his departure, it should be optional with her to abide by or put an end to the contract; the time had almost expired; she had heard nothing from him for some time, and supposed him either dead or unfaithful; another offered, was accepted, and the day appointed for the marriage. In the meantime Mr. Dunlop had been driven off the coast of Scotland by a storm; after a detention of several days, he finally made a port in Ireland, and hastening on his journey, arrived the day previous; his arrival was as joyful as it was unexpected; he was married, and returned immediately with his wife to Cherry Valley, and entered upon his duties as the first pastor of its little church. A log-house had been erected to the north of Mr. Lindesay's on the declivity of the little hill upon which his house was situated; where, though possessing little of this world's wealth, they offered up the homage of devout and grateful hearts. . . . Mr. Dunlop, having received a classical education, opened a school for the instruction of boys, who came from the settlements upon the Mohawk, and from Schenectady and Albany. It is worthy of remark, that this was the first grammar school in the state west of Albany. The boys were received into his house, and con-

stituted a part of his family. The extreme simplicity of the times may be learned from the fact, that they often went into the fields, and there recited their lessons as they followed their instructor about, while engaged in his usual avocations upon his farm; several individuals along the Mohawk, who were afterwards conspicuous in the Revolution, thus received the first rudiments of their education." pp. 21 - 24.

The sequel of the story of Mr. Dunlop and his lady is told in the following paragraph of the author's account of the destruction of Cherry Valley by the Tories and Indians, in 1778.

"Another party of Indians surrounded the house of the Rev. Samuel Dunlop. *His wife was immediately killed.* The old gentleman and his daughter were preserved by Little Aaron, a chief of the Mohawks, who led him out from the house, tottering with age, and stood beside him to protect him. An Indian passing by, pulled his hat from his head, and ran away with it: the chief pursued him, and regained it; on his return, another Indian had carried away his wig; the rain was falling upon his bare head, while his whole system shook like an aspen under the combined influence of age, fear, and cold. He was released a few days after, but the shock was too violent; he died about a year after." p. 112.

The dreadful cruelties practised during the Revolution by the British and their savage allies, in New York and Pennsylvania, towards even the helpless and suffering inhabitants, are well known to those conversant with the history of that period. The volume before us contains many tragic details of that horrid warfare. The massacres of Wyoming and Cherry Valley form but a small portion of the story. Gouverneur Morris has well characterized the deadly hostility that actuated the parties on those frightful occasions: "Let me recall, gentlemen, to your recollection," he says, "that bloody field in which Herkimer fell. There was found the Indian and the white man born on the banks of the Mohawk, their left hand clenched in each other's hair, the right grasping, in a gripe of death, the knife plunged in each other's bosom; thus they lay frowning!"\* There is in the Appendix to this volume a document that confirms the most appalling accounts yet given of the use made by the British government of their Indian auxiliaries. It is a letter accompanying *eight*

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\* Address before the New York Historical Society.

*packages of scalps*, sent by the Seneca chiefs to the Governor of Canada, which were captured by an American officer. The first package is described in the following manner.

"No. I. Containing forty-three scalps of Congress soldiers, killed in different skirmishes; these are stretched on black hoops, four inches diameter; the inside of the skin painted red, with a small black spot to denote their being killed with bullets. *Also sixty-two farmers killed in their houses*; the hoops red; the skin painted brown, and marked with a hoe; a black circle all around to denote their being surprised in the night; and a black hatchet in the middle to signify their being killed with that weapon." Another "containing ninety-eight farmers, killed in their houses; marked, *a little red foot*, to show they stood upon their defence, *and died fighting for their lives and families*."

This horrid document was accompanied by a written address of the Indians to their political Father, the first sentence of which contains an averment that could not well be disputed. "Father! We send you herewith many scalps that you may see that *we are not idle friends*."

There are other portions of this interesting book to which we should like to refer, if our limits would permit.

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ART. III. — *Directions for Invigorating and Prolonging Life; or the Invalid's Oracle*. By WILLIAM KITCHENER, M. D. From the Sixth London Edition; revised and improved by T. S. BARRETT, Licentiate in Medicine and Surgery. New York. J. & J. Harper. 1831. 12mo. pp. 252.

LIFE and health are great goods, the former prized by all, the latter unfortunately hardly prized enough, except by those who have had the misfortune to lose it. Yet these are a numerous class; and when we look about us, and see how many of our acquaintances are sufferers from one form or another of disease, groaning in spirit and pining in body under some of the ills "that the flesh is heir to," we should fancy, that a work like the one whose title stands at the head of this article, would be a captivating treatise; and would attract to its pages many an anxious eye, seeking for relief from present suffering, or for the means of escaping that

which may be to come. That they may be enabled to form some estimate how far it will do for them to depend upon the responses of the "Oracle" to their inquiries, is the object we propose in our present labors, having ourselves cultivated the art of this divination, and become somewhat familiar with the rules of the worship that the Goddess of Health exacts from her votaries.

When the worthy Doctor's first publication, "The Cook's Oracle," met our view, so well did his name harmonize with the sphere of his lucubrations, that we verily thought it assumed for the occasion, a mere *nom de guerre*, as the French term it; and imagined also, that the scientific capitals M. D. following it were likewise assumed as an escutcheon of pretence, to give due weight and authority to him who thus claimed the empire of the realm of cookery, and undertook to regulate for mankind the very important and daily concern of what they should put in their mouths; an affair of no small consequence, considering that mankind live by eating. We have since understood by the public prints that William Kitchener is, or was, a real personage, actually an M. D. as set forth in the title-page of his work, a laudable cultivator of the science of gastronomy, and a practiser, as well as professor, of good eating and drinking, as abundantly displayed in the contents of his volumes. This indeed he openly announces somewhere in the present work, stating his motto to be, "Dum vivimus, vivamus;" being no cultivator of an ascetic philosophy, nor making either virtue or pleasure to consist in painful denial of natural appetite, or abstinence from the use of the various good things, which the bounty of our Creator has placed within our reach. On the contrary, his object is avowedly, to enjoy such in the greatest possible degree; that is, not by enjoying them to excess, but with such limitation and restriction, as shall preserve unimpaired, or even invigorate, the powers of enjoyment, and preserve them in fitness for use to the latest period to which life may be protracted; producing the great, and we fear somewhat rare, blessing of "a sound mind in a sound body," till Death, like what the ancients fabled him, the brother of Sleep, shall substitute his own deep repose of the grave for the nightly slumbers of the couch.

In the doctrine thus generally announced, there seems to be much of the true philosophy of happiness, at least as far

as that may depend upon bodily comfort and enjoyment ; and that these have much influence upon the comfort and enjoyment of the mind, no one will dispute, who has ever had even so little of disease as may arise from a small cavity in one of the organs of mastication.

How well the particular precepts of this doctrine are suited to its general views, and to what effective power they reach, may be shown by an examination of the work before us ; though to avail one's self fully of them in practice, the "Oracle of the Cook" must be consulted, as well as that of the Invalid.

The contents of the work are comprised under the following heads : Art of Invigorating Life ; Reducing Corpulence ; Sleep ; Siesta ; Clothes ; Fire ; Influence of Cold ; Air ; Exercise ; Bathing ; Wine ; Peptic Precepts ; The Pleasure of Making a Will ; and Extracts from Cornaro's Writings. We cannot make a particular examination of subjects so numerous ; yet a few remarks seem necessary on one or two of these articles, since the work is one of a popular character, and on subjects, that in many cases properly come under the direction of a medical adviser, and may tempt some, to their own harm, to endeavour to dispense with his services, and to put their faith on their own interpretation of the "Oracle," and the circumstances to which its dictates may apply, without adequate preliminary information to understand either rightly.

The First Part contains a general summary of the doctrine of invigorating and prolonging life, and the following articles are expansions of the particular subjects mentioned in it, examining them more in detail, and suggesting such peculiar modifications, as seem necessary for different circumstances.

The leading idea of the system is borrowed from the practice of *training*, employed to fit men for different contests requiring great exercise of muscular strength and activity, by which process the bodies of those submitting to it are in the course of a few weeks brought into the highest possible development of physical power. The principles of this system of training, suitably modified, are to be applied to the diet, exercise, &c. of an invalid, and his body is thereby to be brought back from its state of debility, and imperfect performance of animal functions, to the vigor and perfection of health. By systematically living upon a similar plan this

vigor and health are to be preserved from all but the inevitable and general decay, attendant upon the lapse of years and the original limited period of endurance assigned to all human frames.

In this general view, the doctrine wears a plausible appearance, and undoubtedly contains much valuable truth, if it can be but rightly applied. Unfortunately there lies the great difficulty. To admit of being benefited by such a system, the body of the invalid should be merely that of one, who is so in the strictest meaning of the term, that is, one who is suffering merely from debility, from want of proper action and power in the frame, considered as an assemblage of organs designed for the performance of certain duties. He should be free from any actual changes in the proper structure of those organs, and not only so, but from those functional derangements, tending to such alteration in structure, which require rest, soothing, depletion, abstinence from all excitement, &c., in short from almost every thing properly called *disease*. Now of these things there are many; and, if we may believe some celebrated French pathologists, every thing that is not health is one of these very cases. Without going, however, quite to this length, there are enough of these states, existing in many laboring under ill health, to render the training system one of much danger to them, capable of confirming and aggravating their complaints, instead of removing them.

Invalids are not, however, generally capable of estimating for themselves, how far their cases may be those of mere debility, and how far complicated with circumstances of more serious import. Indeed, physicians of great skill are often deceived and baffled in attempting to form such estimates, though vastly more competent to do it rightly. It would not, therefore, be safe or prudent for any one, whose health is much or seriously impaired, to attempt such a course without the sanction of competent medical advice; though we believe, that under proper regulations and with such advice it might often be of much service, and possibly be practised with advantage more than it is.

For those who are well, we think it would be extremely salutary to regulate their modes and habits of life upon some such general principles, or rather upon those of temperance in all things, simplicity, and reasonable variety in the way of

change. Such is pretty much the substance of the long treatises that have been published on the art of preserving health by diet. The general principles laid down by our author do not differ materially from these ; but when he comes to the enumeration of particulars, he seems to us to show satisfactorily, how difficult it is to judge of measure and quantity. What he speaks of as simple and regulated diet, would seem to us, and, we think, to many of our readers, somewhat excessive and luxurious ; e. g. breakfast of beef tea ; at 11 A. M., luncheon, with beer and *wine* or *brandy* to wash it down ; at 3 P. M., dinner, with beer or *wine and water* or *brandy and water*, and a *few glasses of wine* after it ; at 7 P. M., tea or milk with a teaspoonful of *rum* ; finally, supper with beer or *wine*. This seems to us rather too liberal for most invalids, and altogether unnecessary for one in health, especially in the article of wine and spirit. The author to be sure says, the less of these the better, but on the other hand, he does not limit the quantity even to what is put down here, but says in general terms, 'as much wine or other diffusible stimulus as previous habits or other circumstances may render necessary or agreeable, so as to secure a comfortable feeling of animation and briskness of circulation. This is opening wide the door for excess to enter in.' We recollect reading of an old fox-hunter, who supported his tippling habits by the authority of St. Paul, quoting the passage wherein Timothy was advised to drink no more water but *a little wine*. Being asked what he supposed St. Paul meant by *a little*, he replied, "About a gallon a day." Dr. Kitchener's advice, we fancy, would by many be construed with equal liberality. Herein, we think, is the great fault of his book ; while both in the laying down of his general system, and in treating in detail of the different topics belonging to it, he makes many very good remarks, such as would well pay one for perusing and remembering them, yet by the latitude and indulgence to habit that he allows, he counteracts much of the salutary tendency of his own precepts, and by his particular directions fosters a habit of gratifying the stomach and body, far better adapted to make a man a sensualist, one wholly occupied in caring for the comfort of his corporeal frame, than fitted for exercising the useful energies of life. Among those who live to eat and drink, this system may perhaps pass for being very temperate ; and to those who have indulged in these



pleasures to excess, its comparative moderation may be restorative; but to those who eat and drink to live, it is a system of excess, and more likely to do injury than good, to beget habits of indulgence, that may ultimately prove highly pernicious.

For these reasons we should by no means recommend the "Oracle" to the credence of either the sick or well. The evil and the good in it are too much mixed together to be readily separated by the multitude of readers. To any that may read it we should say, that they should take the general precepts with regard to eating and drinking, and forget the particular illustrations. The observations on fire, clothing, bathing, &c., are many of them very good, and may be perused with advantage by all, particularly those whose health is impaired, or whose constitutions require much attention to little things for preserving a healthful state.

The work in its present form is edited by a medical gentleman of New York, with additions, &c., by the editor. The additions are in themselves well enough; but we think, that on the whole the editor would have done better service to the public, if he had also retrenched *not a little* from the volume. By a judicious selection, and especially by leaving out things like those we have censured as leading to too much indulgence and too exclusive attention to bodily pleasure, we think a work might be made out of that before us, which would be much more valuable and safe, though perhaps with less *oracular* pretensions.

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ART. IV.—*Plan of the Founder of Christianity*. By F. V. REINHARD, S. T. D., Court Preacher at Dresden. Translated from the Fifth German Edition, by OLIVER A. TAYLOR, A. M., Resident Licentiate, Theological Seminary, Andover. New York. G. & C. & H. Carvill. 1831. 12mo. pp. 359.

FRANZ VOLKMAR REINHARD was for some time Professor of Theology at Wittemberg, and subsequently Court Preacher at Dresden, where he died in 1812, in the fifty-ninth year of his age. He was a sound scholar, an eloquent preacher, and a voluminous writer, having published, besides the present work, systematic treatises on Theology and Morals, and about thirty volumes of Sermons.

A sketch of the work whose title is given above appeared first in Latin, in 1780, and the first German edition was published in 1781. It was occasioned by the appearance of the celebrated "Wolfenbüttel Fragments,"\* and particularly by one on the "Object of Jesus and his Disciples," in which the ground was taken, that Jesus and his disciples were impostors, and that the object of the former was not the establishment of a universal religious institution, but was wholly of a political nature; — that he made use of the Jewish popular prejudices and expectations respecting a Messiah, for the purpose of overthrowing the existing state, and founding a merely earthly kingdom among the Jews; but being defeated and put to death, his disciples continued the imposture in another shape by attributing to him a moral object and the idea of a universal spiritual kingdom of God on earth.

In opposition to this theory and to similar views subsequently advanced by Bahrdt and others, Reinhard wrote his book. It is accordingly of the nature of an apologetical performance, and might on this account perhaps, and particularly from the character of the views above named, be thought to possess only a local and temporary interest. But as the author conducts the discussion on general principles, the work will be found to have a general and permanent value as a positive contribution to the proofs of the Christian religion. And the more so, because the subject is presented in a point of view which had not before been distinctly considered. The general *character* of Jesus, and the *salutary effects* of Christianity in the world, have indeed been very common sources of evidence in favor of the Christian religion. It had not, however, been distinctly considered that the *mere plan* conceived by the Founder of Christianity for the good of mankind is of such a nature as to mark him for the most extraordinary individual that has ever appeared in the world. The conception of such a plan in the mind of Jesus is a fact altogether without parallel. No human mind before him ever conceived the idea of establishing a universal spirit-

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\* *Wolfenbüttelsche Fragmente eines Ungenannten*, written by Reimarus, and published after his death by Lessing in his *Beiträge zur Geschichte und Litteratur aus den Schätzen der Herzoglichen Bibliothek zu Wolfenbüttel*, in 1777 and 1778.

ual kingdom of God,—a kingdom of truth, morality, and happiness ; — “ the idea of radically curing all the evil with which humanity is afflicted, and of raising up for the Creator an entirely new and better generation. No sage, no ruler, no hero of antiquity was ever capable of such enlargement, such elevation of thought.” And the question then is, whether there is any adequate solution of the existence of this plan, conceived and formed in the mind of Jesus, except by regarding him as inspired by God ; whether we are not justified in considering him, not only as the most exalted sage and greatest benefactor of mankind, but also as a most credible messenger of the Deity. And though these considerations may not afford *incontestable* proof of the divine origin of Christianity, yet they create a reasonable presumption of it, and form an important addition to the mass of evidence on this great subject.

Such is the scope of this work, in which throughout contemplating Jesus *as any other great man* of antiquity, the author compares his object and plan with *the benevolent views of other venerable men*, in order to show that his plan is the greatest, the most elevated, and most benevolent that has ever been conceived. The discussion is conducted with the clearness, lucid order, and logical connexion, by which all Reinhard’s works are distinguished. The subject is treated in Three Parts. The First contains a sketch of the plan devised by Jesus for the good of mankind, in regard to its compass, its character, and the means by which it was to be effected. *ITS COMPASS.* The plan of Christ embraced mankind at large. This is attempted to be shown from the conduct of Christ — from his explicit assertions, and his instructions to his disciples, and also lies at the foundation of the doctrines which he inculcated. *ITS CHARACTER.* Jesus declared that he came to establish *the kingdom of God* on earth. That by this, however, he understood no such earthly monarchy as many of his countrymen expected, but a universal, spiritual, and religious institution, is evident from his conduct and his declarations. The plan of Jesus embraced the improvement of mankind in regard to religion, morality, and society. In regard to *Religion*, — by destroying the prevalent superstitions and spreading every where the doctrine of the one true God as the Father of mankind, and thus rendering religion clear and simple, and introducing a worship of God in

spirit and in truth. In regard to *Morality*,—by resolving it into love to the Supreme Father, and to men, his children; a love consisting in a disposition to imitate God and promote the general good. Thus he placed *Morality* in its true relation to Religion, rendered it universally intelligible, purified it, and secured it against fanaticism and extravagance. In regard to *Society*,—by means of this principle of love to God and man Jesus aimed to improve and exalt mankind in all the social and civil relations, connecting them together as closely as possible and leading them to the highest degree of cultivation and perfection. *THE MANNER in which this plan was to be EFFECTED.* Here it is shown that Jesus did not propose to effect his plan by *power*; nor is there any reason either from his instructions, or his private life, or the language of his friends, or their conduct after his death, to adopt the theory which some have held, that Jesus intended to effect his plan by means of a *Secret Society*. On the contrary, his language and his directions to his Apostles point only to the influence of instruction, persuasion, and institutions adapted to promote morality.

Having thus described the Plan of Christ, the Second Part is devoted to a comparison of it with the plans of the founders of states, the legislators, the kings, the statesmen, the heroes, and philosophers of antiquity; which are all shown to be either deficient in benevolence or in comprehension, and that no great man of antiquity, before Jesus, ever devised a benevolent plan for the whole human family.

In the Third Part, the practicability of the plan of Christ is discussed, and it is shown that the idea of establishing a universal religion, when contemplated under its proper conditions, is not chimerical. This religion is moral, intelligible, and spiritual, and possesses every requisite for a universal religion, inasmuch as it can be expressed in every language, and, losing nothing by being divested of all secular power, can adapt itself to every form of civil government.

Such a plan for the good of mankind demonstrates its author to have been the greatest and most exalted of men, possessing, in the highest degree and greatest harmony, true wisdom, strength of soul, power of will, and expansive benevolence. We look in vain for any thing like it in the history of the world.

The question now forces itself upon us, Whether these

qualities were or could have been developed in Jesus according to the ordinary laws of human nature. This question has been answered in the affirmative. The author of this work, however, attempts to show that such could not have been the case.

“The meaning of the question is not, whether, considered in general, it is possible for divine wisdom to project and arrange a series of natural causes by the operation of which, according to the natural laws of the human mind, such a character could be developed as Christ’s was. Left in this indefinite state, no one will wish to deny it; for who would not in general admit it to be possible for divine wisdom and power to operate by any means and arrangements which do not imply a contradiction? But the question is, whether, considering the *individual circumstances* and relations in which Jesus lived, ordinary causes could have produced as great effects as they must have done, in order to the formation of his mind.” p. 248.

It is then shown, that all the advantages which Jesus actually enjoyed, according to the testimony of history, or may be supposed to have enjoyed, with some appearance of probability, come far short of accounting for the formation and development of such a character and plan; that the opposers of the supernatural character of Jesus have attributed a greater influence to these circumstances than they could have had; and that many obstacles in the way of the natural education of Jesus have been passed over in silence. And the conclusion from the whole is, that “*if God was not with this man*, it is not easy to see how he became what he was; how he could possibly have acquired that heavenly dignity, greatness, and elevation, with which he stands forth unequalled and alone in the vast space of history, far surpassing all that is worthy of admiration upon earth.” Hence it is reasonable to regard him as the most exalted ambassador of God, and our Saviour.

Such is the course of argument pursued in this work. “The newness of the object which the author has in view,” says Tzschirner, “and the learning and acuteness which he displays in his investigations, as well as the clearness, nobleness, and impressiveness of his representations, have all conspired to procure for this work an extensive circulation and a powerful influence upon the age.” “It is considered,” says Böttiger, “as the best apology for Christianity that

modern times have produced." These citations, to omit a great many that might be made, show the estimation in which the work has been held in Germany; but unquestionably peculiar circumstances, and the character of the controversies at the time when it was written, gave it an importance and interest which it will not possess at the present time in this country.

We presume, however, that every one who reads it will consider it as a valuable contribution to the evidences for Christianity, and will thank Mr. Taylor for presenting it to the American public.

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ART. V. — *Poems*, by WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT. New York. E. Bliss. 1832. 12mo. pp. 240.

It is a little surprising, that a writer who has been steadily before the public for fifteen years, and with a still increasing reputation, should have found ample room in one little volume for all that has given him such a place in popular favor. The *Poems*, as they appeared from time to time in one journal or another, were short and thoroughly finished; but they bore every mark of a prolific mind that had learnt the art and uses of compression. So that when Mr. Bryant proposed to give us a collection of the verses he had scattered through our popular literature, together with his longest Poem, "The Ages," we were prepared for a much larger book than this. How idle was it, and yet how natural, to measure the quantity of his lines by the fullness of our memories, the depth of our sympathies, and by the frequency of the images that he had brought before us. How idle would it be now to imagine that we have lost any thing, because he seems to have withheld so much. His abstemiousness is only in appearance. We have the fair product of the workings of a poetical spirit for many years. To say that he has not written enough for us, is perhaps not to understand fully how much we have already. To say that he has not written enough for his fame, is perhaps the same as to measure honorable age by number of years. May he go on and do more. When we think of the "Green River," we are almost tempted to whisper that there are ways besides a drudging profession in which he may feel bound to desert the

muse and "scrawl strange words with the barbarous pen." But our prerogative as admirers or critics goes not to this. And neither have we any right to press him to try his powers on one long work. Artists, to be sure, are not to expect, more than others, an exemption from public calls and exposition, if they have once become favorites; and they are not beyond the reach of many useful hints. But to prescribe the extent or subject of a poem seems foolish and presumptuous; and, in the present case, any such suggestions might savour of ingratitude.

Indeed, it may not be easy to settle whether Mr. Bryant's success is not somewhat connected with the shortness of his poems. Not that he or Burns or Collins or Gray could not have succeeded in departments of poetry, where size is thought to be an essential matter by those who do not consider that the dimensions are well or ill only according to the material, and the skill and taste of the builder. The truth is, that it is hard to do a thing well in little space, and yet if well done in that, it is very sure to be popular. The difficulty, we suppose, lies chiefly in making a whole, or producing the effect of a whole, by a few touches, let the subject be ever so vast,—avoiding all appearance of constraint or affectation, and especially all appearance of something detached from an entire piece, or of a few bright thoughts being successfully snatched from a burning train. The short poem may owe some of its popularity to its light and unimposing appearance. There are not now many regular readers of every thing, who first go through with a poet's larger works, as those, of course, on which he rests his fame, and then the supplementary matters that serve to make the volume look more respectable. Most of us feel more heart to take up a short poem than a long one; and while we never doubt a moment that the variety, involution, and invention of a great epic or play are trials and proofs of higher genius than is necessary to furnish one or two hundred lines of lyric or descriptive poetry, we still feel equally sure that the power shown in the choicest smaller works is competent to any thing upon which it may be heartily employed. Then, the short piece is popular because it is easily retained, even to the very words; and it is often recalled purposely in vacant hours, and perhaps still oftener breaks upon us of itself at times when some strong present feeling harmonizes with

the strain of the remembered verse. And again, the closeness of a short poem may give it greater effect on the first reading, and leave more room too for the mind to add something every day to its early strong, though immature conception: and thus we may be humored with the idea that we are completing another man's work, when we are only obeying his will and purpose, and proving how thoroughly his work was already done.

Mr. Bryant's poetry may be called popular, and in the strictest sense of the word. It is valued not merely by those who are esteemed thorough judges in the art, but also by those who never ask themselves whether they know all the merits of one who pleases them, and who never define to themselves the exact character or amount of their pleasure. It is enough to them that they are pleased. A child may read his "Waterfowl" or "Evening Wind," and though it feel not all that riper minds may experience, yet it will have something of its own that they might envy, to nourish and swell its unformed fancy, and something that shall affect its taste and the direction of its imagination and perhaps its moral tone for ever. A poet of the highest genius is more likely to be intelligible and agreeable to all classes of readers than one of lower pretensions, if he is free from any private theory as to his art, and belongs to no school and has no ambition to establish one. Some of his best qualities may not be distinctly perceived by all; but an effect is produced on all by the most delicate and secret part of his workmanship. And it is mainly owing to his generously addressing himself to the universal sympathy of mankind, that his less obvious and rarest beauties started up in his way; and he will have the most of these, who at the same time has the most that is within the apprehension and relish of the largest number of readers. It is no affront to the multitude to say that they do not see the whole. The ancient philosopher had his secret and public doctrines, his morning and his evening walk for different sets of his disciples; and the distinction is degrading so far as it supposes that one man, however gifted, is competent to settle what is fit aliment for another. It is better that all should be laid open to all, so that we may throw ourselves as boldly into the whirl of intellectual influences, as we expose the outward senses to the light and air, and to the touch and pressure of every thing around us. And



yet it must be confessed, that in effect the genuine poet keeps up the philosopher's discrimination to this day. He does not, to be sure, set apart this deep mystery for the initiated, and that vulgar beauty for the crowd : the whole is given to every one upon the same legible page ; but the interpretation of the writing will vary, and in ways and for causes that need not be enumerated. The poet in the meanwhile sees, with all humility, that few have taken his whole import, that he has impelled some farther than he had travelled himself, and at any rate that he has secured the general favor.

It will be easily conceived that Mr. Bryant never runs into mysticism ; he always seems to be talking of what he has fully experienced in the most natural exercise of his faculties ; we have the plain amount of what he has felt and revolved. A lofty and restless mind, in its eagerness to know more of our spiritual nature and capacities and of the relations that outward things sustain to us and to each other, may run into errors from mere impatience of what is obvious and near, and be tempted to ease its craving and dissatisfaction with violent and whimsical phantasies, when it cannot seize upon defined and communicable truths that seem grand enough for its desire and its grasp. A wilful distortion or obscuration of a familiar object or feeling may thus be mistaken for a discovery ; and an unintelligibleness that belongs wholly to the writer, he may think well enough accounted for by the novelty and profoundness of his speculations. There is no objection to a poet's or any other man's believing that more is yet to be known and ought to be known of the human soul, and its connexion with things present and things to come, and with the Supreme Intelligence. Let no one be satisfied with what is already ascertained or supposed to be ascertained. The bounds of reality are far beyond what the wildest dreamer has ever conjectured. But even in regions of the purest intelligence or passion, or depths never before explored, the poet should tell us only what in a sound use of his powers he has experienced there, and tell this too in language that comes near to human sympathy. Probably this is always practicable where he does not deceive himself. Mr. Bryant may write of mere facts or actual existences ; a star, plant, or tempest, the flight of a bird or the flutter of a summer wind ; and besides a delicate, minute delineation of

what is most obvious, he may give to them all, what we had never done; the common property has passed into his hands to be invested with qualities, uses, associations, which an original, glowing mind honestly sees to become it and belong to it; and we feel that the addition is just as real as the simple topic he began with; yes, an essential part of it, a newly discovered beauty in our old possession. There is not the slightest attempt to force upon it unnatural virtues or relations, or to connect with it feelings to which it could not have given birth. This air of naturalness, or veritableness, we should say distinguished all his views, his thinnest and his most gorgeous fancies, his notice of the faintest analogies and his profoundest reflections; and it is one signal effect of his poetry to breathe into others his own deep, cordial, purifying love of God's works, and relish of all natural feeling.

His language and numbers bear the same character of eloquent truth, and appear to be as much his own as the feelings or images they clothe. A delicate and practised ear has made him master of English verse in nearly all its varieties, and capable of sounding the very strain the sentiment is allied to. Words are to him as things felt, seen, or dreamt of, and as living interpreters to other minds; if the sound be not "instinct with spirit," what is it but a disturber of the air. His expression is luminous, easy, original, and though as finished as art can make it, yet the words seem to throng to the thoughts as "nimble and airy servitors" that know their office. There is no mockery nor swelling nor cloud of language. Magnificence here is as simple as humility. A poet professing to please only, is here found to make himself as responsible for what he says, as if he had undertaken some obviously pressing duty of life.

Besides a warm moral spirit that runs through many of his descriptions, a distinct moral truth is frequently introduced, and for the most part in a very natural way, either being wrought into the work as it is going on, or brought in with delicacy and feeling, as a closing reflection upon what has just exercised the imagination. Such attempts by the best hands are often very unsuccessful; the mind seems to plunge suddenly from its height. Mr. Bryant has escaped the inequality and languor that were to be feared, and passes with the utmost ease from his finest pictures to a consoling, exalting, and sometimes highly philosophical reflection. The prevailing

tone of feeling is serene both in passages that are solemn and tender. But sometimes there is passion, as in "Rizpah"; not flashing nor smothered, but deep and long nursed; and as we think there is passion or something like it in a prophet's rapture, as his voice comes sounding up from the deeps of the future, so we have fancied that in the lines to "The Past," we heard a note as thrilling from "the dark backward and abysm of time."

"Thou unrelenting Past!  
Strong are the barriers round thy dark domain,  
And fetters, sure and fast,  
Hold all that enter thy unbreathing reign.

"Far in thy realm withdrawn  
Old empires sit in sullenness and gloom,  
And glorious ages gone  
Lie deep within the shadow of thy womb.

"Childhood, with all its mirth,  
Youth, Manhood, Age, that draws us to the ground,  
And last, Man's Life on earth,  
Glide to thy dim dominions, and are bound.

"Thou hast my better years,  
Thou hast my earlier friends — the good — the kind,  
Yielded to thee with tears —  
The venerable form, the exalted mind.

"My spirit yearns to bring  
The lost ones back — yearns with desire intense,  
And struggles hard to wring  
Thy bolts apart, and pluck thy captives thence.

"In vain — thy gates deny  
All passage save to those who hence depart;  
Nor to the streaming eye  
Thou givest them back — nor to the broken heart.

"In thy abysses hide  
Beauty and excellence unknown — to thee  
Earth's wonder and her pride  
Are gathered, as the waters to the sea." pp. 21, 22.

"Thanatopsis," one of his earliest and most popular poems, may be in a lower strain than this; but there is a sublime air over the whole. It is a glorious dream of a burial-place to whose magnificence all time and all creation are minister-

ing. There is not a word of the pyramid, or cemetery, or any thing of man's device, to make us forget that nature has prepared a grave for all her children.

"The hills  
Rock-ribbed and ancient as the sun, — the vales  
Stretching in pensive quietness between ;  
The venerable woods — rivers that move  
In majesty, and the complaining brooks  
That make the meadows green ; and poured round all,  
Old ocean's gray and melancholy waste, —  
Are but the solemn decorations all  
Of the great tomb of man. The golden sun,  
The planets, all the infinite host of heaven,  
Are shining on the sad abodes of death,  
Through the still lapse of ages." pp. 25, 26.

The subject is a favorite one. The "Death of the Flowers" is the sweetest dirge we remember, and even the beauties of "June" are all funereal, all associated with the grave. There is nothing of despondency in any of these views, nor a heartless fabrication of horrors out of scenes in which others find only peace or gayety. The tendency is to make the laughter thoughtful, and strip the tomb of some false terrors ; in short, to add one more to the thousand uses of all that we see.

Without attempting to analyse any passage, we will take a few stanzas from the "Hymn to the North Star," that may show his power of mingling warmth and cheerfulness with solemnity and grandeur.

"The sad and solemn night  
Has yet her multitude of cheerful fires ;  
The glorious host of light  
Walk the dark hemisphere till she retires :  
All through her silent watches, gliding slow,  
Her constellations come, and climb the heavens, and go.

"Day, too, hath many a star  
To grace his gorgeous reign, as bright as they :  
Through the blue fields afar,  
Unseen, they follow in his flaming way :  
Many a bright lingerer, as the eve grows dim,  
Tells what a radiant troop arose and set with him.

"And thou dost see them rise,  
Star of the Pole! and thou dost see them set.  
Alone, in thy cold skies,  
Thou keep'st thy old unmoving station yet,  
Nor join'st the dances of that glittering train,  
Nor dipp'st thy virgin orb in the blue western main.

"There, at morn's rosy birth,  
Thou lookest meekly through the kindling air,  
And eve, that round the earth  
Chases the day, beholds thee watching there;  
There noontide finds thee, and the hour that calls  
The shapes of polar flame to scale heaven's azure walls."  
pp. 202, 203.

The following cluster of gay images from the "Summer Wind" will lose some of its beauty to one who remembers not the first lines of this exquisite poem. He should pant in the fierce heat, to enjoy all this freshness.

"Why so slow,  
Gentle and voluble spirit of the air?  
Oh, come and breathe upon the fainting earth  
Coolness and life. Is it that in his caves  
He hears me? See, on yonder woody ridge,  
The pine is bending his proud top, and now,  
Among the nearer groves, chesnut and oak  
Are tossing their green boughs about. He comes!  
Lo, where the grassy meadow runs in waves!  
The deep distressful silence of the scene  
Breaks up with mingling of unnumbered sounds  
And universal motion. He is come,  
Shaking a shower of blossoms from the shrubs,  
And bearing on their fragrance; and he brings  
Music of birds, and rustling of young boughs,  
And sound of swaying branches, and the voice  
Of distant waterfalls. All the green herbs  
Are stirring in his breath; a thousand flowers,  
By the road-side and the borders of the brook,  
Nod gaily to each other; glossy leaves  
Are twinkling in the sun, as if the dew  
Were on them yet, and silver waters break  
Into small waves and sparkle as he comes." p. 122.

The "Evening Wind" breathes a deeper and tenderer strain.

"Go rock the little wood-bird in his nest,  
Curl the still waters, bright with stars, and rouse

The wide old wood from his majestic rest,  
 Summoning from the innumerable boughs  
 The strange, deep harmonies that haunt his breast;  
 Pleasant shall be thy way where meekly bows  
 The shutting flower, and darkling waters pass,  
 And 'twixt the o'ershadowing branches and the grass.

"The faint old man shall lean his silver head  
 To feel thee; thou shalt kiss the child asleep,  
 And dry the moistened curls that overspread  
 His temples, while his breathing grows more deep."

pp. 32.

In closing, we feel the pressure of things still untouched. Not that we care to notice a faulty rhyme, as of *bosom* and *blossom*, or an accent upon the last syllable of *solitude*, or the use of a striking expression more than once. We rather remember the delightful pieces we could not so much as name, and the ease, spirit, and fancy of the humorous ones for which we were not prepared; and some natural thoughts of the future were kindled at this renewed acquaintance with one of the great poets of our age, born of our stock and inspired with our scenes. And thus, having left unsaid a great deal more than we have written, we send the reader to the book or his memory to finish the criticism and better the commendation.

ART. VI. — *Decimi Junii Juvenalis et Auli Persii Flacci Satiræ Expurgatæ, Notis Illustratæ*. Curavit F. P. LEVERETT. Bostoniæ. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1832. 12mo. pp. 252.

TACITUS, in his fine delineations of the manners of the ancient Germans, says, that vice was not treated by them with levity or ridicule, nor was an apology sought for corruption by pleading the age or customs of society. Thus it was that what they deemed vice or corruption was punished with unrelenting severity, and did not need even the intervention of a legal tribunal. But the case is vastly altered when any kind of wickedness has become so general, as to constitute a part of public manners. Then of course there can be no effectual remedy in common sentiment, in moral

means, or in public authority ; and in some cases, those who are not included in any of those classes of offenders which are exposed to public odium and disgrace, or incur the penalties of the laws,

“ Safe from the bar, the pulpit, and the throne,  
Are touched and shamed by ridicule alone.”

In the time of Domitian, when Juvenal wrote his Satires, the grossest licentiousness had become so prevalent and fashionable, as to be called the way of the world ; and this great moral poet wielded different kinds of weapons, in his warfare against the corruption of the age. He more frequently, however, appears in the character of the indignant censor, and stern, uncompromising moralist, than in that of one who aims to show his power and dexterity in vexatious and torturing raillery. Especially is this the case when he encounters the enormous vices of the times. It was also more consonant to his temperament, and to the tenets of the Stoic philosophy to which he was inclined, to assail the guilty with grave severity, than, for the sake of ministering merely to the love of the ridiculous in others, to tamper with wickedness, which he himself loathed, and often so loathsomely portrayed. The follies and faults of taste and fashion may well be met by wit and ridicule, such as we find so predominant in Horace, and which in him are natural and becoming ; but Juvenal was evidently a grave and contemplative philosopher and moralist, inclined to severe invective ; and this was alike natural and becoming in him. It is true, that in his first Satire, after bringing forward legitimate subjects for the poet's invective, in a sort of climax, from the vapid ebullitions of poetasters through various prevalent follies and vices up to the most gross and appalling crimes, he asks whether such subjects are not worthy the lucubrations of Horace. But it is manifest, in general, that Horace was more fitted as a satirist for the region of taste, and Juvenal for that of morals ; and this difference in their natural bent gave rise to the distinction that we find to exist between them, to a certain extent, in this species of poetry. For though Horace does encounter notorious vices, as well as fashionable faults and follies, his attacks are not marked by that spirit of solemn denunciation and deep aversion which we find so prevalent in Juvenal. Thus, as one of the old scholiasts says, he rarely penetrates beyond the surface,

and contents himself with smiling and showing his white teeth, while Juvenal bites his prey to the very bone.\*

Persius was a practical Stoic, and his Satires are marked with the unyielding honesty and sincerity of his character. But they are in many places exceedingly obscure; and none of them seem to have that clear continuity of thought, and that visible unity of purpose which are so generally found in Juvenal. Still less does he reach that grandeur of persuasion, of reproof, of warning, of denunciation flowing out in a strain of vehemence, sometimes indeed little short of declamation, which we meet so often in Juvenal, the prince of satirists. We have said that Persius is often very obscure. Dryden, who gave Casaubon the praise of having understood him better than all the preceding commentators, adds also, that "the best commentators can but guess his meaning in many passages, and none can be certain that he has divined rightly." We are disposed to think, however, that at the present time, and with the aid of successive commentators, the meaning may be pretty satisfactorily ascertained, even in the darkest passages. But it is the result of great labor, a labor also far less amply compensated than that which is bestowed upon Juvenal, who doubly rewards our toils — *delectando pariterque monendo*. Persius, as a writer, was prior to Juvenal, in the order of time, and died probably before he commenced the thirtieth year of his age, and before the close of Nero's execrable reign.

It will be readily perceived by our remarks, that we do not attach much value to Persius as a class-book in our schools or colleges. But since his Satires are so generally added to editions of Juvenal, Mr. Leverett has judged wisely in doing the same, and furnishing the means for the curious and thorough student in Latin to become acquainted with that author. Juvenal, on the contrary, is a book which is very generally interesting, as well to young scholars as to their elders. We know that his gross descriptions here and there of lewdness

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\* Persius, who borrows freely from Horace, without in other respects imitating or resembling him, draws his character as a satirist in a manner not inconsistent with this description of the commentator.

"Omne vafer vitium ridenti Flaccus amico  
Tangit, et admissus circum præcordia ludit,  
Callidus excusso populum suspendere naso."

*Sat. I. v. 115 et seqq.*



and obscenity, have been alleged as objections against his Satires being introduced into a course of instruction; but the objectors will be surprised to find the small amount of lines omitted in Mr. Leverett's edition, with the exception of three of the Satires, and how little is left with which even the fastidious will be displeased. Add to this, as we strenuously maintain, that no lures are held out to entice the unwary; that the descriptions of vice are absolutely disgusting, and intended to be met by the disgust of every pure reader, and the shame and conviction of every polluted one; that there is scarcely a Satire which does not begin or end with a striking or noble moral, while every thing preceptive and monitory, proceeding from his examples, is moral throughout; and we are satisfied that the apprehensions concerning this author, compared with some others in Greek and Latin, which maintain their place in schools by the right of prescription, are exceedingly ill founded. This we say, meaning fully to approve what Mr. Leverett has done in the way of omissions, and presuming also that from the nature of the subjects, most teachers would choose to pass by the Second, Sixth, and Ninth Satires; still leaving enough of the author to occupy his share in a course of instruction.

The text of Mr. Leverett's Juvenal is taken without any deviation from a recent edition of Ruperti's Juvenal. It differs in some of its readings from that of 1801, which is the only edition of Ruperti which we have before us, and also from Mr. Leverett's edition of 1828. Of course Mr. Leverett retains those words which have the ancient orthography; but he has failed in some instances to indicate it in the Notes; while Ruperti, in the edition of 1801, does indicate it in every example which we have examined, except in the word *infittietur*; and this word, by accident undoubtedly, he has spelled with *c* in the antepenult, where it occurs in his "Index Verborum." But *urgueat*, which Mr. Leverett has passed by without remark, is thus noticed by Ruperti, where it first occurs: "*Urgueat* reposui pro *urgeat*, quoniam ita in optimis libris et numis reperitur." This may seem rather too minute a criticism; but it is of some importance, since our Latin school-dictionaries do not give the ancient orthography.

We pass by such doubtful readings as do not essentially affect the sense, to notice one or two which have puzzled the critics, in their animadversions upon the text.

In the Fourth Satire, containing the pleasant mock-heroic description of the council held over the Turbot, Domitian presiding, Crispinus, who figures in the assembly, is also previously introduced as a gluttonous epicure, who, from being a beggarly Egyptian, had become by the favor of the Emperor chief among the Equestrian order; Crispinus, who formerly stretched his lungs in crying fish of his own country which he sold *pactâ mercede*,—as the reading was once (and we wish it had been once for all) settled by Casaubon, and by Ruperti in his edition of 1801. But the text which Mr. Leverett follows, who, as in duty bound, sticks to his text, has *fricta de merce*, a reading which seems neither to have been seen nor imagined by Ruperti in 1801. But afterwards, having rung all the changes upon *merce* and *mercede*—*pacta, facta, fracta, fricta*, &c., it appears that *fricta de merce* charmed him most. A savoury reading; but, *cave, lector*—it does not mean fried fish, but fish dried in some way by the application of heat, and so prepared by the addition of condiments as to preserve them for future use or a foreign market. Mr. Leverett tells us, that Lemaire in his edition of Juvenal, Paris, 1823, adopts Ruperti's reading, but is very ready to admit *fracta de merce*:—that is, he sold the *siluri*, the box and merchandise or mass of fish being broken or divided into parts (*Gallice en détail*), or, as we say, by retail. Ruperti notices this reading, which is found both in some manuscript and published *codices*, and quotes some of the scholiasts who defend and interpret it; but he treats it with a sneer, as a silly reading. So it is that doctors disagree. (Sat. iv. verse 32.)

We begin to feel some misgivings concerning this subject, lest we should become tedious to many of our readers; and therefore, though we had singled out other examples for remark, we promptly desist. It is due to Mr. Leverett, however, to say, that very few of his Notes have any thing to do with criticisms on various readings. This is as it should be.

The Notes of Mr. Leverett are very neat and concise, and suited to the purpose of his book. Juvenal and Persius abound in allusions to mythology, manners, customs, and persons, that leave so much to be supplied, in order to perceive how they are apposite, or how to come at a meaning beyond what meets the ear, in the way of analogy or inference, that a very frequent occurrence of notes is necessary

to one who reads those authors for the first time. Mr. Leverett has afforded such helps in his Notes; and they are composed, compiled, altered, or abridged from other editors with good judgment and taste.

In reading through Mr. Leverett's edition of Juvenal and Persius with tolerable care we have discovered no literal errors in the text of either of the authors, which we consider ascribable to the editor. In the Notes we have met only with two; but we are not prepared to vouch for the accuracy of the Notes in this respect, with the same degree of confidence as for that of the text; because we have not read them all.

A short biographical account of each author precedes the Notes, and a brief description of the purpose and general contents of each Satire precedes the notes to the several Satires respectively.

The Editor has performed his labors with the fidelity and learning to be looked for in an accomplished scholar; and we regret exceedingly that the mechanical execution of the book does not correspond to its literary merits. The general appearance of the page does not please the eye; sometimes the impression is faint and the letters are not well defined; the tittles of the *i* and *j* are often wanting, and there is, in many instances, a defective impression at the ends of lines. We notice here the same faults which we pointed out in the edition of Sallust, which was reviewed in our last number. In nearly twenty instances we have found a period or some other sign for a pause wanting at the end of a line, and in two instances we have marked the absence of letters in the same situation; as Juv. Sat. xiii. v. 64, we find *bimembr* for *bimembri*, and in the same Satire, v. 232, *sacel* for *sacello*. We have said that no literal errors have been found by us in the text which are chargeable to the editor. Those which we have mentioned pertain, we suppose, to the mechanical execution, after the correction of the proof-sheets. Whether the copy before us is better or worse than the average of the impression we cannot say. But to speak in general terms, we regret that the impression is not more clear and exact, and that it does not present to the eye a more attractive page. We cannot help comparing this book with Mr. Leverett's edition of Juvenal, published in 1828, a very neat and accurate little volume. One cannot look over its pages without

being prejudiced in its favor. Our school-books should be reasonably cheap; but we ought not to regard the addition of a few cents to a volume as a matter of great import, when compared with what is of so much more consequence, namely, winning the favor and smiles of ingenuous youth.

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ART. VII. — *Scientific Tracts, designed for Instruction and Entertainment, and adapted to Schools, Lyceums, and Families.* Conducted by JOSIAH HOLBROOK AND OTHERS. Boston. Carter & Hendee. 1832. Vol. i. pp. 580. Vol. II. Nos. 1 and 2, pp. 48.

THESE tracts are professedly designed as instruments for operating in the great and common cause of Popular Education. The aim of the conductors is "to avoid theoretical speculations and technicalities, to simplify language and facts, and to give the whole work a moral cast." These are truly indispensable requisites in disseminating instruction for the mass of the people; and it becomes us to inquire how the work thus far justifies these pretensions.

In the first tract, page 15, there is a theory concerning shooting-stars, which, even if plausible in itself, should have been avoided, as contradictory to the spirit of the Conductors' promises. The theory is much too futile to meet the approbation of any scientific man, and when offered to the people, can serve only to mislead them.

On page 17 of the same tract, the author identifies oxygen with heat. He gives us to understand, that the match in the air-syringe is ignited by the oxygen, which is separated from the air by compression. Now, although the oxygen is *essential* to the ignition of the match, still it is not the *cause*. It is produced by the expression of the latent heat of the air.

In tract No. III, page 67, the same experiment is correctly explained.

The first paragraph of the same tract (No. III.) pretends to account for the blue color of the atmosphere, by reasons entirely at variance with the true theory of color. "The blue rays are most readily absorbed by the atmosphere, hence its blue appearance above and around us." The sensation of color is excited in us by reflected rays; and not

absorbed rays. The color of blue is produced by the reflection of the blue rays, while the rest are absorbed.

The treatises on Electricity are inadequate to teach the untaught, and to those who are versed in the subject they are valueless. On page 478, the allegation, that the theory of two electricities is now almost universally admitted, is untrue. Franklin's theory has not yielded a step to that of Du Faye, and something more than a sweeping assertion will be required, to make us relinquish the theory of a single fluid.

On the strength of the above assertion, the author says in the same paragraph, that he shall adopt the theory of two fluids in his treatise; that is, he shall use the terms *vitreous* and *resinous*, in his explanations, instead of *positive* and *negative*. On page 482, we find a phenomenon explained on the supposition of a single fluid, and the terms *positive* and *negative* made use of. Now, although this may be the more plausible and *easier* mode of explanation, still it should not be made use of here, as it is not in accordance with the "*almost universally received theory*." This is only one of the many cases of inconsistency. The terms are confounded throughout the whole treatise, and it could hardly be expected to be otherwise, in a collection of quotations.

On page 496, the explanation of the decomposition and recomposition of the natural electricity is extremely involved. After this, it is further said, "that the same is evidently true, if we consider the theory of Franklin, already alluded to, as the more probable theory." This has the appearance of clashing a little with a previous assertion.

On page 507, is mentioned a "remarkable fact," which the author does not "recollect to have seen noticed in any treatise; that very many of the experiments with the electric light succeed better with the conductor than with the jar." We do not recollect to have seen many treatises where it is not mentioned. It is noticed in "Pinnock's Catechism on Electricity," in "The Library of Useful Knowledge," and in "Rees's Cyclopædia," whence a great part of the treatise is quoted. This being the fact, we cannot grant the author the honor of a discovery in this case.

Hoping that the people will not be injured by these few anomalies, we can recommend to them the greater part of the remaining tracts as interesting and instructive. The tract on Forest Trees is very well worth perusal; not so much

from any intrinsic merit, as from the importance of the subject. It would be out of place here to set forth the value of a good treatise on this hitherto neglected subject, so highly important to men of taste, and so appropriate to this country. Although many of these tracts are truly commendable, there are some which have so much the appearance of belonging to the class referrible to persons called book-makers, that one might be inclined to think they really had such an origin, if there were not, in general, reason to think better of the work and its conductors. But we do consider the electrical *farrago*, to which we have adverted, and some of the other treatises on philosophical subjects, as unworthy the name of "Scientific Tracts."

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ART. VIII. — *A Natural History of the Globe, of Man, of Beasts, Birds, Fishes, Reptiles, Insects, and Plants.* From the Writings of BUFFON, CUVIER, LACEPÈDE, and other eminent Naturalists. Edited by JOHN WRIGHT, Member of the Zoölogical Society of London. A new Edition, with Improvements from Geoffrey, Griffith, Richardson, Lewis and Clark, Long, Wilson, and others. With Five Hundred Engravings. [Edited by Samuel G. Goodrich.] Boston. Gray & Bowen. 1831. 5 vols. 12mo.

THE addition of about three hundred pages of matter and many wood-cuts, with the comparative cheapness of the American edition, renders it an improvement of that by Mr. Wright; but in point of typographical execution and pictorial embellishment, it is manifestly inferior to the English work. In both, systematic arrangement and terms of science have been disregarded, from the idea that they are not important in a popular work, or that they are adverse to one in which "variety, the desire of keeping attention alive by facts calculated to excite astonishment and perhaps a higher feeling, and to yield innocent entertainment or valuable information," are the principal objects. We believe this to be a mistaken idea. Scientific names and a natural classification of animals are valuable aids to the memory. Upon the organization of animals, which furnishes the principles of their systematic arrangement, their habits so necessarily depend, that a knowledge of the one carries with it that of the other. It enables

us more correctly to appreciate the resemblances and diversities of animals, to associate them in groups according to their natural affinities, and to understand the relative rank of each one in the scale of created beings. In the very terms of science are stored up numerous valuable zoölogical facts; and, to use the words of Linnæus, "*Si nomina nescis, perit et cognitio rerum.*"

The want of a natural arrangement is most sensibly felt in that part of the work including the *invertebrated* animals, or those destitute of an internal bony skeleton. This great division of the animal kingdom contains an immense number of objects, interesting not only for their multifarious forms, and singular habits, but for their wonderful internal structure, the exact adaptation of their organs to the medium in which they are designed to live, and to the wants these organs are intended to supply. The minuteness of the object and the brevity of its existence do not lessen our curiosity; it in reality serves still more to excite our admiration and astonishment at the symmetry of form, the delicacy of organs, and the concentration of power and of vitality in such minute entities. To use the eloquent language of the author of the "*British Naturalist*," as quoted in this "*Natural History*," "We are apt, because we cannot move from one part to another without labor, to associate interest with magnitude, — measure power with a line, and reckon wisdom by tables of chronology; but when the work is His, 'with whom a thousand years are as one day, and one day as a thousand years,' we find also that space is not an element of the wonderful in His works, or time of the wisdom with which they have been made." It is impossible to render the natural history of these numerous objects intelligible or instructive without arrangement; and hence we find in this work the utmost confusion, and total inattention to the natural relations of these animals. Thus the lobster and crab are associated with the amphibious reptiles, coming immediately after the tortoise, to which they have not the remotest affinity. Shell-fish, such as oysters, muscles, and clams, succeed these, and are followed by frogs, lizards, and serpents. The confusion increases in the last volume. Here the flea, a true insect, which undergoes a remarkable transformation in passing from its young to its adult state, which lives wholly by suction, is furnished with only six legs, and is covered with a polished

laminated coat, is placed immediately after spiders, animals that preserve throughout their lives the forms in which they appear at birth, which are predaceous in habit, are furnished with venomous fangs, move upon eight legs, and have a system of respiratory and nutritive organs upon an entirely different model from those of insects. The description of *aphides*, or plant-lice, is appended to that of the irritating vermin which inhabit some of the vertebrated animals, and which invade and occupy even the high places of the lords of creation. We are entirely at a loss to conceive what resemblance Buffon, Wright, or Goodrich could find between the common louse and an *aphis*, either in form, structure, or economy. It is evident that the popular name has misled the author of these chapters in this and other instances, such as bringing together the common bed-bug and the *millepede*, or, as it is sometimes called, the *sow-bug*. The latter is allied to the *centipede*, but is separated from it by the scorpion and the *Daphnia* (Monoculus), an animal nearly related to the *horse-shoe*. But it is unnecessary to point out other examples of the absolute disregard of order and affinity which prevails in the last volume; suffice it only to mention, that the leech, or blood-sucker, is associated with *centipedes* and insects, and the other red-blooded worms with *zoöphytes*, among which also is included the cuttle-fish, an animal closely related to the nautilus and argonaut.

The limits of this article will not permit us to point out many of the errors of this work; we shall confine ourselves, therefore, principally to those minor faults which ought not to have escaped the correction of a careful editor, and one acquainted with the subject, which is a matter of no small consequence. In the first volume, page 51, of the American edition (to the pages of which we shall refer), it is stated that "the mountains of Europe form *four* systems," for which read *six* systems. Page 112, "America is said to be one continued morass; a proof of the modern date of the country, of the small number of inhabitants, and still more of their want of industry;" which *on dit* of the French naturalist deserved at least a refutation by the Editor. On the same page we find *Palus Meotidis* for *Palus Mæotis*. Page 233, "The Latins, after the Greeks, have called the wild ass *angra*:" this misnomer is repeated below, and it appears in still another form in Vol. II., page 294, where, instead of



*onager*, we read *onagra*. Page 248, "In the Journal des Savans there is a description of worms found in the livers of sheep and oxen, as also in the German Ephemerides." (We presume that the only worms found in the latter must be book-worms.) "It has also been said that butterflies have been found in the livers of sheep"! In the excellent description of the hare (page 325), transferred without acknowledgment from Dr. Godman's work, for "a species of *œstrus* which lays *with* eggs," read, as in the original, "a species of *œstrus* which lays *its* eggs." Of the badger it is said (page 355), that "dogs easily overtake it when it is at any distance from its hole, and then, using all its strength and all its powers of resistance, it throws itself upon its back, and defends itself with desperate resolution. It has one single advantage over its assailants. The skin is so thick, and especially so loose, that the teeth of the dogs can make little impression on it, and the badger can turn himself round in it, so as to bite them in their tenderest parts." This *wonderful* feat of the badger very possibly suggested the phrase of *turning a cat-skin*.

On page 275 of the second volume, we have *Reuminants* for *Ruminants*, or rather ruminating quadrupeds.

In the third volume, page 43, Mr. Goodrich informs us that the figure of the bird of Washington "is copied from the engraving in Mr. Audubon's splendid work on American Ornithology." We are suspicious that the eagle in question is copied from the wood-cut in "Loudon's Magazine of Natural History."

In the commencement of the fifth volume it is stated, that "many insects are furnished with lungs and a heart like nobler animals; yet the caterpillar continues to live, though its heart and lungs, which is often the case, are entirely eaten away." Neither of these assertions is true: an insect has not lungs and a heart, like the vertebrated animals, reputed *nobler* by Buffon; nor can a caterpillar live when the vital organs, performing the vicarious office of lungs and heart, are consumed. The figure on the 63d page is not a locust, it is a *mantis*, of which no description is given in the text. The account of the venomous powers of the "great West Indian locust" is fabulous. Pollen, or the yellow dust of flowers, does not (as is related on page 128) furnish the material for bees-wax. It is now a well established fact that this substance is elabo-

rated by the digestive apparatus of bees from the nectar, honey, and other sweet vegetable productions which they swallow; and that, after undergoing the necessary changes, it transpires from the interior of the body, and is collected in flakes beneath the rings of the belly, in what are called the wax-pockets. Pollen is gathered and stored up by bees as food for their young; after being masticated and mixed with their saliva it forms the bee-bread, with which their grubs are nourished. In the first volume, page 117, "women are said to have fewer teeth than men!" It has also been said that men have fewer ribs than women; and "thereby hangs a tale." Some persons have had wit enough to ascertain by inspection and enumeration that this saying is not true, and hence has arisen a difficulty in regard to the deficient rib, which is effectually cleared up by a statement deserving a place in this veracious "*Natural History*." In the learned account of the creation of woman, as given by the Jewish Rabbins,\* we are told that Adam was originally furnished with a tail, and that from this inferior appendage of his vertebral column woman was formed, thus being really "bone of his bone and flesh of his flesh."

The wood-cuts in the American, as before said, are inferior to those of the English edition. The dogs are miserably executed, as are also many other animals. The grisly bear, an animal which has been under our notice in the living state for many months, could not be identified by the figure here given. A spirited and striking resemblance of it is executed in the work of Mr. Richardson.

Mr. Goodrich's figure of the rattle-snake is far less correct than that in the English work; it is represented as smooth, whereas every one who has seen this serpent, must have remarked the peculiar roughness of its imbricated scales. Mr. Wright's beautiful vignette of the child gazing with pleased wonder at a rattle-snake twined around the stump of a tree, with its head erect, and its tongue protruded in the act of emitting its menacing hiss, reminds us of a fact that occurred last summer in the vicinity of the Blue-Hills, the metropolis of the rattle-snakes of Massachusetts. A young child, at play near a wood-pile, espied a full grown rattle-snake; pleased with its circumvolutions and its rattle, it attempted to

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\* *Alexander's History of Women.* Vol. i. p. 28.

secure the reptile, which, while endeavouring to enter the wood-pile, was grasped by the eager child, and, notwithstanding its struggles, was held firmly by its tail. The shouts of the child soon brought to the door its mother, who, though alarmed at the dangerous sport, possessed sufficient courage to seize a stick and despatch the snake.

The English figures of the drone, queen, and working bees, though larger than life, are excellent; those of the American edition have no resemblance to bees nor to any other insect.

The American Editor has drawn freely from the works of Dr. Richardson, Mr. Wilson, and the Prince of Musignano. He has also added some interesting matter and figures from those works in which are described the animals in the London Zoölogical Gardens and Tower Menagerie. A few of the cuts are from original drawings made from living animals in Boston. All these are acknowledged in the Advertisement; but there is another source whence many important details have been extracted. It is the "American Natural History" of the late Dr. John D. Godman, a work truly American, of the highest authority, and replete with interesting and useful information. From the title of Dr. Godman's work it appears that he intended to publish a history of all the North-American animals; but disease and death prevented him from accomplishing a task for which he was preëminently fitted. The three volumes that were completed, will remain an honorable monument of his industry, zeal, and originality. These volumes embrace the natural history of the Indian race, of the quadrupeds, seals, sharks, and whales, or of those animals which, from nursing their young, are denominated *mammalia*. Dr. Godman was distinguished for his skill as an anatomist, and his eloquence as a lecturer; his natural history acquires much of its celebrity from these sources, as well as from his faithful and amiable delineations of the characters and habits of animals living under his own observation. That it contains nothing offensive to the modesty and delicacy of ingenuous youth, is a recommendation which will increase its value in the estimation of parents. While we hope that the copy-right may long remain inviolate, we trust that a new edition, in a more convenient and cheaper form may, ere long, be offered to the public. This gentleman's name does not appear in the list of authorities

on the title-page and in the Advertisement; and though it often occurs in the first and second volumes, yet occasionally it is omitted where his language has been employed. These instances, it is true, are rare; but, justice to the memory of a deceased naturalist, and patriotic respect to American talent, should have prevented any such omission. Besides his descriptions, many of Dr. Godman's plates also are transferred to these volumes.

The additions to American ornithology are selected by Mr. Goodrich almost entirely from Wilson's deservedly celebrated work. Of water-fowl, however, but few American species are described, and scarcely one figured, although to our sportsmen and epicures, these are by far the most interesting of our birds. An attempt at a classification of the birds is made in this work. The sections are denoted by German text in the English edition, but in the American by Roman letters, which, being of the same size as those of the names of the birds, do not so distinctly point out the divisions.

To the reptiles and fishes but very few additions are made; among these are to be included brief and unessential descriptions of three or four snakes and about as many fishes by Mr. Goodrich, and a collection of statements respecting the sea-serpent, "gathered partly from newspapers, and partly from an unpublished pamphlet on the subject." This forms an Appendix which terminates the fourth volume. The fifth and last volume, devoted to the insects or zoöphytes of Buffon, and to the physiology and terminology of plants, is a reprint of the English, and (one short paragraph only excepted) without addition, comment, or correction.

It is a matter of no small surprise to us, when abundant materials for a more complete history of our reptiles, fishes, testaceous and crustaceous shell-fish (or mollusca and crustacea), insects, and zoöphytes, existed in this country, that Mr. Goodrich should have left these departments in so meagre a state. Having mentioned the existence of such materials, we may be permitted to enumerate some of them. Those desirous of information upon these branches of American zoölogy are referred to the "Journal of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia," the "Philosophical Transactions" of Philadelphia and of New York, the "Annals of the Lyceum of Natural History of New York," and the "Contributions of the Maclurean Lyceum of Philadelphia," be-

sides numerous papers published by Mr. Say in various works,\* and by others in the scientific journals of our country. The reptiles are elucidated by Professor Green and Dr. Harlan, the latter of whom has enumerated and described a hundred and twenty-three native species. Mr. Le Sueur and Dr. Mitchell have paid particular attention to our fishes; for the descriptions of a hundred and forty-seven and figures of sixty species, which frequent the waters of New York, we are indebted to the industry of Dr. Mitchell. Mr. Le Sueur has also brought some of our mollusca and zoöphytes into notice; but much of our knowledge of these animals, and nearly all that we know of the North-American insects, is derived from the labors of Mr. Say.

After a careful examination of this augmented edition of "Buffon's Natural History," we must acknowledge that it falls far short of its pretensions. There is certainly much entertaining matter in it, and of the first two classes, mammalia and birds, a very considerable amount of information may be gleaned from it. As a book of mere amusement it cannot safely be entrusted to youth, in consequence of the indelicacy of some of its details, and it has no claims to rank as a scientific natural history.

We would not dismiss the work without a passing remark upon the botanical portion of it. This is evidently the production of a scientific and practical botanist. The first part gives a clear, condensed, and instructive account of the analogy of the science and of the anatomy and physiology of plants; the latter contains an explanation of the scientific terms and classification employed by the most distinguished botanists of the present day. The former may be read with pleasure and profit by any one, while the latter will be found a valuable summary for the botanical student.

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\* "Appendix to Keating's Narrative of Long's Expedition," "Western Quarterly Reporter," "Nicholson's Encyclopædia," "New Harmony Disseminator," "American Entomology," "American Conchology."

ART. IX. — *A Manual of the Ornithology of the United States and of Canada.* By THOMAS NUTTALL, A. M., F. L. S. *The Land Birds.* Cambridge. Hilliard & Brown. 1832. 12mo. pp. 683.

Of the different branches of Natural History, all of which are delightful and instructive, Ornithology is the most fascinating. The beauty of the form, colors, and structure of birds, their curious nests, often constructed with the greatest art and neatness, their eggs which they so patiently cherish, their affection for their young and mates, and above all, the music of their notes, have rendered them general favorites in every age.

Unlike some favorites, they are also friends; very few are injurious to man, and a great part of them are constantly employed in the destruction of insects,—the most formidable of all his animal enemies. It is, indeed, a matter of almost absolute certainty, that if the whole multitude of birds in any country were destroyed; in a few years not a single crop of any kind would be produced. Even the owls and the hawks, which the farmer is so apt to consider as good for nothing but to devour his poultry, perform the indispensable service of keeping in check the prolific tribes of field-mice and moles, which would otherwise destroy his orchards, his grass, and his grain.

Ornithology has been singularly fortunate in the illustrations which it has received from its many devoted admirers. In England, the choicest specimens of the truly descriptive engravings of Bewick are contained in his "*History of British Birds.*" In our own country, while the plates of Wilson's "*American Ornithology*" are surpassed by those of few works of the kind in Europe, his admirable descriptions are still unequalled, and are likely to remain so.

Another American citizen, Mr. Audubon, in his work entitled "*The Birds of America,*" &c.,\* has presented to the

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\* "*The Birds of America*, engraved from Drawings made in the United States and their Territories. By John James Audubon, F. R. SS. L. & E., &c." The plan of the work is given in the Prospectus as follows: "I. The size of the work is double Elephant Folio, the paper being of the finest quality. II. The Engravings are, in every instance, of the exact dimensions of the drawings, which, without any

world a long and splendid series of engravings, far the most perfect and magnificent which have ever been produced in any department of Natural History.

But while the study of Ornithology has become popular in the United States, the bulk and expense, as well as the want of arrangement, of all the works hitherto published on American birds form an almost insuperable obstacle in the way of many of our students. And although the invaluable Synopsis of Prince Charles Lucian Bonaparte, published in the "Annals of the New York Lyceum of Natural History," has in some measure removed this obstacle, still from its conciseness it is insufficient for those who cannot have recourse to the larger works of Wilson and Audubon. A book was wanted, which, containing a sufficiently extensive description of all our birds, arranged in systematic order, should yet be of such a size and price as to be generally accessible and convenient. It has been the purpose of Mr. Nuttall to prepare such a book, and we think that the work he has produced will prove acceptable both to the general reader and to the student. It is very neatly printed in a large and thick duodecimo, and is illustrated by many wood engravings, which with few exceptions are very good, while many of them are excellent. Besides an Introduction upon Birds in general, and a description

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exception, represent the birds and other objects of their natural size. III. The plates are colored in the most careful manner from the original drawings."

Of these Plates, so far as they are published, the only copy in this vicinity, we believe, is that recently exhibited in the Boston Athenæum; which, according to the list of subscribers, was engaged by the Hon. T. H. Perkins for that Institution.

"The superiority of the original drawings, consists in the accuracy as to proportion and outline, and the variety and truth of the attitudes and positions of the figures, resulting from peculiar means discovered and employed by the author, and from his attentive examination of the objects portrayed during a long series of years. He has not contented himself with single profile views, but in very many instances has grouped his figures so as to represent the originals at their natural avocations, and has placed them on branches of trees decorated with foliage, blossoms, and fruits, or amidst plants of numerous species. Some are seen pursuing their prey through the air, searching for food among the leaves and herbage, sitting on their nests, or feeding their young, while others, of a different nature, swim, wade, or glide in or over their allotted element." *Prospectus appended to Audubon's Ornithological Biography.*

of each species in the manner of Wilson and Audubon, but commonly more concise, it contains at the head of the description of each species, the essential specific phrase, and at the end a more extended technical character. It contains all the land species of Wilson, Bonaparte, and Audubon now published, with the addition of a few Canadian birds not found in the United States, and of several new species discovered by the author.

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ART. X. — *Encyclopædia Americana. A Popular Dictionary of Arts, Sciences, Literature, History, Politics, and Biography; brought down to the Present Time; including a Copious Collection of Original Articles in American Biography.* On the Basis of the Seventh Edition of the German Conversations Lexicon. Edited by FRANCIS LIEBER, assisted by E. WIGGLESWORTH, and T. G. BRADFORD. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea. 8vo.

IN estimating a work like this, regard should be had to the wants of the times. The question is not so much, whether the thing be excellent in itself, as whether it was needed. In an original work of instruction or of taste we look for intrinsic merit, and judge by the eternal laws of truth and beauty; but in a compilation the essential requisite is immediate utility, adaptation to present wants. Here then, of course, the standard of excellence will be more contingent and fluctuating, depending upon the changes of the times; here, the value must always depend on the demand.

Proceeding upon this ground we ask, Was a new Encyclopædia needed at the present time? And if so, for whom was it needed? It certainly was not needed for the learned, the student by profession, the man whose whole life is devoted to literary and scientific pursuits; the wants of this class were already abundantly supplied by such works as the "*Encyclopædia Britannica*," Rees's, Brewster's, and others of high authority. But there is another class of readers, — and it is in every community the largest class, — consisting of those whose ordinary pursuits are not of a literary character, the path of whose destiny lies not among the cultivated fields of science, and who, if they taste of knowledge at all, as they have no time to till for themselves, must have their food pre-



pared to their hands. . Among readers of this description a want did exist, which had never before been satisfactorily provided for ; these have long stood in need of some repository of general information more accessible and practical than the folios and quartos, more copious and interesting than the octavos, of former encyclopædists. This want, according to the principle above stated, is the test we should apply to any new work in this department of literary labor. We should expect such a work to be popular in its design and in its form, discursive rather than profound, correct but not minute, a dictionary of things rather than of opinions, — presenting in each department of science the outlines merely, and the most prominent facts without the details, — the results without the processes by which they were obtained, — having a large proportion of articles devoted to common things, and conveying information on all topics in the plainest and most concise manner. Such would be our demand. Now the work whose title stands at the head of this article, and of which eight volumes, comprising about two thirds of the whole, are already before the public, satisfies this demand, we think, in every particular ; and we are glad to find that Dr. Lieber and his assistants have thus far succeeded so well in making their book what the title promised it should be, a “ popular dictionary.” This constitutes in our opinion its highest merit. It is a popular work ; it merits that title as well by the free space which it allows to popular subjects, as by the popular manner in which it handles those that are more abstruse. It is a popular work, and it is the only one of the kind that we have. Of Encyclopædias we had enough before ; but this is a new thing ; it interferes with none of its predecessors, and it fills a gap which it was important to have filled, and to fill which but one attempt worthy of notice had been made before. We allude to the *Libraries of Useful and Entertaining Knowledge* ; but the *American Encyclopædia* excels these, we think, in very many particulars ; it is more extensive in its design and more practical in its execution, to say nothing of the advantages of lexicographical arrangement.

Nor is its popular cast the only merit which distinguishes the *American Encyclopædia* ; it is remarkable also for the variety of its articles, for the brevity and conciseness of its manner, and for the attention it gives to subjects which, not

belonging to any particular division, have hitherto found no place in works of this description. On scientific subjects it is inferior to many others ; but in the fine arts it justly claims a superiority over all our English Encyclopædias, and in history and biography it excels every other work not exclusively devoted to these subjects. We like, too, its cheerful and animated tone, so different from the dull prosing style usual in such compilations ; this gives it a new claim, and makes it, like the celebrated work of Bayle, not merely a useful dictionary, but an entertaining book. As the American Encyclopædia professes to be founded on the German "Conversations Lexicon," it becomes a question of some interest how far it agrees with its original ; but in comparing the two, we must bear in mind the object which our compilers had in view. We must not expect to find all that is excellent in the German retained in the English ; much that is interesting and appropriate there, would not be so here. Thus transcendental views and principles unintelligible to American readers have been judiciously avoided. In respect to such subjects Dr. Lieber might say with the Roman poet,

"Nullus in hac terrâ, recitem si carmina, cujus  
Intellecturis auribus utar, adest."

We are aware that scientific men in Germany have found fault with some portions of the "Conversations Lexicon," on the score of inaccuracy. We recollect once hearing Professor Blumenbach say, that he lost all patience whenever he attempted to consult it on subjects connected with his own department. It was in a former edition of this work too, if we remember right, that a very ludicrous mistake was made by a certain manufacturer of articles, who, strangely enough, confounding the Greek word *vous* with the French *nous*, described the subject of his article as addicted to a very *selfish* philosophy. These errors, however, are confined we believe to the earlier editions, and the charge of inaccuracy has never, to our knowledge, been preferred against the seventh, on which the American work is based. Nevertheless this work has its faults ; and there is one, as we think, a trifling one to besure, in the very title-page. We know of no reason why Latin should have been introduced here, why it was not as well (as certainly it was more natural) to say American Encyclopædia, as to say "Encyclopædia Americana." In some

of the *critiques* on German authors there seems to be a little unfairness, not intentional, but arising from certain national prejudices, of which the Editor himself was unconscious. Perhaps we mistake the cause, but we are convinced of the fact. Thus the article on Kotzebue \* appears to be written with a good moral aim, no doubt, but with an exclusive spirit that is very far from doing justice to that distinguished author, who, with all his faults, and his offences against moral rectitude, stands unrivalled, perhaps, in the comic drama of Germany.

On some topics we wish that an earlier edition of the "Conversations Lexicon" had been followed, rather than the seventh, whose tone on these topics is too dogmatical and contemptuous for a philosophic work. Occasionally the American Editor appears undecided whether to fall in with this tone, or to take an independent stand. In the article on Animal Magnetism, e. g. (a very satisfactory one in the earlier German) we observe, that after translating the ridicule which he found on this subject in the seventh edition of the original, he has added, of his own accord, a somewhat prolix statement of the phenomena of animal magnetism. Here is an inconsistency. First he tells us that there is nothing in the matter, and then describes phenomena, which, if true, prove incontestably that there is. This reminds us of a certain learned Doctor who wrote a learned book on some specimens of petrification, which he thought he had found in his garden, but which, he afterward discovered, were artificial, and had been deposited there by some wag who was acquainted with his pursuits. As the discovery was not made till the book was finished, the Doctor was unwilling to lose the credit and the profit of his labors; he therefore published the work, as if nothing had happened, and added a note at the end, in which the patient reader, after toiling through several hundred pages, was informed that the whole affair was a delusion. The author of the article in the American Encyclopædia, to which we allude, has acted less wisely; he has made his confession in the outset, and then told his story, which story, after such a confession, few will take the trouble

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\* On comparing this article with the corresponding one in the original we find no essential difference between them. We do not know what are the political sentiments of the German editor.

to read. It should have been omitted altogether, or given without the confession. We do not mention these things as detracting essentially from the value of the work, but with the hope that in the volumes yet to come, even such trifling inconsistencies will be avoided.

On the whole, placing it on the ground which we have assumed, that of general utility, we do not hesitate to give the American Encyclopædia our most hearty commendation as a repository of useful knowledge. It deserves a place in every village library and in every family. We have heard of a lady, "not very particular about her reading," who borrowed a copy of Johnson's Dictionary, and after reading it through, returned it, saying she had found it a very entertaining book. This is rather a singular commendation to bestow upon a dictionary; but it may be applied with perfect justice to the work before us; for though a dictionary, it is an entertaining book, and deserves not only to be frequently consulted, but attentively perused.

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ART. XI. — *Memoir of the Life of Eli Whitney, Esq.* [In the American Journal of Science.] New Haven. January, 1832. pp. 54.

PROFESSOR SILLIMAN, the Editor of this "Journal," informs us, that "he is indebted exclusively to Professor Olmsted for this article." It has been proposed, we understand, to publish it by itself; an intention which we hope to see executed, as there are many in the northern part of the Union at least, who know little of Eli Whitney, and who feel the good effects of the invention of the Cotton Gin, without being aware that they owe them to the ingenuity of a native of Massachusetts. The names of Watt, Arkwright, and Fulton are familiar; that of Whitney should in like manner be suggested by the same association with the great sources of national wealth and happiness.

For several years after the close of the revolutionary war, as is well known, it was a problem of difficult solution with the statesmen of the day, to discover among the productions of an extensive but exhausted country, some article of export, which might do something towards the payment of the debts to foreign powers, incurred in the prosecution of the

**contest.** The invention of Whitney solved the problem, and opened to the country in general, and to the southern planters in particular, sources of wealth, surpassing the imagination of the most enthusiastic. In 1785, the export of cotton to Liverpool (and this was probably a great part of the whole export) consisted of five bags; in 1831, the whole product of the Southern States was, we believe, upwards of one million bales.

A stranger might be curious to inquire, what rewards were lavished by a grateful country on the ingenious or fortunate discoverer of an instrument of such extraordinary efficiency; what honors were rendered to him by his contemporaries, and in what regard and estimation his name has been held by their posterity. But he would feel a sensation of shame for his species, when he learned that the best part of the life of this eminent benefactor was wasted and his health impaired in attempts to secure from his invention the means of a livelihood; that he was obliged at last to look to other efforts of invention and industry for subsistence; that his claims were resisted and his character vilified during his life, by those who were deriving the most direct and extensive benefits from his invention; and that as yet his name has been rarely mentioned, and his history is unknown to thousands of his countrymen.

But there are other rewards of merit beside the accumulation of wealth, or the enjoyment of contemporary fame. The well founded consciousness of deserving both, and the certainty of receiving in full measure the arrears of gratitude and honor from future generations, are worth something to all, and much to the truly great and noble-minded.

The subject of this "Memoir" was a native of the county of Worcester, in Massachusetts, and a graduate of Yale College. In 1792, soon after his first degree was conferred, he went to the South as a teacher in the family of a gentleman in Georgia. While there his attention was drawn to a subject then of great interest, — a method of separating the fibre of the green seed-cotton from its seed, — which had hitherto been accomplished only by the slow and unprofitable method of hand-picking. For this purpose Whitney devised a machine, which proved perfectly effectual, and which is now known by the name of the Cotton Gin, in which the fibre is separated by means of cylinders with wire teeth.

His difficulties commenced, however, almost at the moment of his invention. Before he could secure his patent, his building was broken open, the machine carried off, and a number of similar ones in successful operation. Thirteen years, during which the right was secured to him by the patent, were spent in endeavouring to establish his claim to it, and defending himself against aggressions in the state of Georgia. The difficulties that attended this legal warfare may be illustrated by a single remark from one of his letters. "In one instance," says he, "I had great difficulty in proving that the machine *had been used in Georgia*, although at the same moment, there were three separate sets of this machinery in motion, within fifty yards of the building in which the Court sat, and all so near, that the rattling of the wheels was distinctly heard on the steps of the court-house."

In the year 1801, Mr. Whitney sold the right for the state of South Carolina to the government for the small sum of fifty thousand dollars. In the following year he made an arrangement with North Carolina for a tax of two shillings and sixpence on every saw\* employed in ginning cotton in that state; and in 1803, he made a similar arrangement with the state of Tennessee.

Soon after this, the legislature of South Carolina, in consequence of the representations of interested individuals, suspended payment of the balance due Mr. Whitney (thirty thousand dollars), and instituted a suit against him and his partner, Mr. Miller, for the recovery of what had already been paid to them, requesting at the same time by message the coöperation of the states of Tennessee and North Carolina. The request was complied with by Tennessee; but the legislature of North Carolina, to their honor be it spoken, amid this general and iniquitous scene of persecution, calmly expressed their opinion, that "the contract ought to be fulfilled with punctuality and good faith."

South Carolina also retraced her steps, and at a succeeding session of the legislature, it was voted, "that the contract [with Miller and Whitney] be now fulfilled, as in their opinion it ought to be, according to the most strict justice and equity."

From these states, therefore, something was received. The whole amount, estimating the labor of one man at

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\* Some of the gins had forty saws.

twenty cents a day, being, as he calculated in 1812, something less than the value of the labor saved to the United States in *one hour* by his machines then in use. And of the sums thus received in the Carolinas, a large portion was expended in prosecuting his claim in the state, in which he had first made, and where he had first introduced his machine, and which had derived the most signal benefits from it. From this state — the state of Georgia — Whitney received nothing.

In 1798, Mr. Whitney, wearied with the labor and vexation attending the pursuit of the prospects, which were at first so promising, of realizing an independent property, from an invention which showered wealth every where but on the inventor, betook himself to another occupation, — the manufacture of arms. His progress in this undertaking, we do not propose to notice here, observing merely that it was successful, and afforded him a competent fortune. He died at New Haven, Connecticut, in January, 1825; and on his tomb is inscribed, "The Inventor of the Cotton Gin."

Such is a short abstract of a part of this "Memoir," the details of which are uncommonly interesting; and we repeat the hope that it may be published separately; that the name and history of a man, who was an honor to his native state and country, may be more generally known; that honor may be given where honor is due; and that the injustice of states or individuals may be held up as a fit subject for the only punishment that can reach them, — the general reprobation of mankind.

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ART. XII. — *Commentaries on the Law of Bailments, with Illustrations from the Civil and the Foreign Law.* By JOSEPH STORY, LL. D., Dane Professor of Law in Harvard University. Cambridge. Hilliard & Brown. 1832. 8vo. pp. 450.

THE design of the author of these "Commentaries," as stated by him in his Preface, is "to present a systematical view of the whole of the common law in relation to Bailments, and to illustrate it by, and compare it throughout with, the civil law and the modern jurisprudence of continental Europe." The subject is one of considerable extent, and forms a very

important branch of the science of jurisprudence in every civilized community. Not only so, but it is one of frequent occurrence in the daily intercourse of business and the necessary differences and collisions that thence arise.

But however valuable a knowledge of this part of the great system of law may now be considered, from the widening and diversified relations of society, it is chiefly of modern growth in that country from which we have derived the common law as our inheritance. In early times in England, the whole science was narrow in its limits and contracted in its operations. Commercial adventures, whether foreign or domestic, were few and small. Manufactures and trade were confined to the supply of the actual wants of the population, and were in fact chiefly in the hands of foreigners. Money was scarce and valuable; credit was neither asked for nor understood; and the mode of transacting business, and transmitting funds by means of bills of exchange, was a mysterious affair, and had its origin in another quarter.

At this time the feudal system prevailed in its full vigor. The country was chiefly agricultural. Hence the negotiations and the suits at law that were most common were those relating to the transfer of real estate. The nobility and the clergy were the great landholders, and those who held under them had but very limited rights, and were but little above the present serfs of Russia, either in property or privileges. All matters of trade were looked upon with contempt, and were managed principally by the despised Jew, who weighed out his gains as a set-off and consolation for the insult and indignity that were his constant portion, and only parted with his treasure to escape torture or death. It was not the age of merchants sitting in kings' palaces, lending millions of money to potentates and powers, taking empires in mortgage, and controlling the question of war and peace.

As commerce increased in extent and value, this class gained strength and power, and new rights and obligations sprung up. Commercial law took root and spread wide, and adapted itself to the new and increasing demands of a business community. The law of Bailments became an important branch of commercial jurisprudence. It was not native in England. Many, nay most of its principal and beneficial provisions were derived from the Roman Code without acknowledgment. For it has been fashionable with the



English writers, from an early period to the present time, to decry the Roman Code as full of arbitrary provisions, and as deriving its authority from the will of the Emperor. Hence much of the law of Bailments has been resolved into the *custom of the realm*, through the influence of a narrow spirit that would not confess the true origin of that law. Indeed, in this department of jurisprudence, as well as in insurance and maritime law generally, much that is excellent and equitable has been *silently* incorporated into the body of the common law from foreign sources.

The earliest treatise upon the law of Bailments in England is contained in Bracton's celebrated work *De Legibus et Consuetudinibus Angliæ*, written in the reign of Henry the Third. A few, very few cases are also found scattered through the volumes of the old common law Reports. But thus far there was nothing like a systematic arrangement of the law; all was imperfect and confused. The points that had been decided were not sufficiently numerous to form the basis of a system by an induction of particular cases. But what is generally gained in this respect by time and opportunity was executed and brought to a good degree of symmetry by the single effort of a most learned and able Judge. Lord Holt, Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench in the reign of Queen Anne, in the great case of *Coggs v. Bernard*,\* gave order and arrangement to the law on this subject. He struck out, as has been forcibly said, at a single heat, the whole of the law of Bailments. This is, indeed, rather exaggerated praise; though it must be confessed that what he accomplished was highly praiseworthy and remarkable for a common lawyer, although it was a mere exposition of the sound doctrine of the civil law on the same subject that had been discussed and decided ages before. It was, however, a bold, happy, and successful effort. Blackstone in his "*Commentaries*" devotes but a few pages to the subject, and fails to treat it according to its merit and importance.

The only distinct treatise on Bailments, with which we are acquainted from an English author, is the work of Sir William Jones, that learned and upright jurist, that most distinguished scholar. The first edition of this work was published, we believe, in 1761, and immediately obtained a high and de-

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\* 2 Lord Raymond's Reports, p. 909, &c.

served celebrity. It is a systematic and lucid arrangement of the law of Bailments, written in a pure style and abounding in learning. It is deeply imbued with the principles and spirit of the civil law from which it is chiefly drawn, and with which he was desirous the common law should be in conformity. But this circumstance, as Judge Story well remarks, "has sometimes appeared to mislead his judgment, and has sometimes disturbed the clearness of his reasoning." And besides, it is added, the work is a mere outline.

In this country the subject has been briefly touched upon in about forty pages, by Chancellor Kent, in his usual felicitous manner, in his very valuable Commentaries. But a new and more full treatise was required by the state of the law, and one which should embrace in a methodical manner the whole law of Bailments, with the later decisions of the Courts. And some estimate may be made of the growth of this branch of jurisprudence from the fact, that Sir William Jones cites only about a score of cases from the common law Reports, they being nearly, if not quite, all that were adjudged up to the time when he wrote; while Judge Story cites somewhat over four hundred and sixty cases, from the English and American decisions, besides much more numerous authorities from the works of foreign jurists.

In the work before us Judge Story first speaks of the importance of this branch of law as lying at the foundation of many commercial contracts. He defines a bailment to be, "A delivery of a thing in trust for some special object or purpose, and upon a contract express or implied, to conform to the object or purpose of the trust." (Page 2.)

Bailments, it is added, are of three kinds, viz. 1. Those in which the trust is for the benefit of the bailor; as *deposits* and *mandates*. 2. Where the trust is for the benefit of the bailee; as *gratuitous loans for use*; and 3. Where the trust is for the benefit of both parties; as pledges or pawns, and hiring and letting to hire. The author then proceeds in the remainder of the first chapter to discuss at length the obligations of the bailee in the different sorts of bailments, and the different degrees of diligence required of him under each class of bailments.

The second chapter treats of *Deposits*. A Deposit is defined to be "a naked bailment of goods to be kept for the bailor without reward, and to be returned when he shall

require it." Here the identical article delivered is to be returned; but in a *mutuum*, which is also a species of deposit, where the article is consumed in the use, as corn, wine, &c., a like article of equal quality is to be returned. The whole law on the subject of this chapter is stated at length.

The Third Chapter is upon *Mandates*, that is, "the bailment of personal property in regard to which the bailee engages to do some act without reward;" or in the language of Chancellor Kent, it is "when one undertakes without recompense to do some act for another in respect to the thing bailed." In a *deposit* the principal object of the parties is the *custody* of the thing; in a *mandate* the principal object is *labor* and *services* to be performed by the bailee about the article delivered.

The Fourth Chapter discusses the law of *Gratuitous Loans*. This is defined to be "a bailment or loan of an article for a certain time, to be used by the borrower without paying for it."

The Fifth Chapter is upon *Pawns* or *Pledges*. The best definition of this branch of the subject is the one given by the author, viz. that it is "a bailment of personal property, as security for some debt or engagement."

The last Chapter, and much the longest and most important, treats of *Contracts of Hire*. Under this general head are embraced, 1. Hire of things. 2. Hire of labor and services. 3. Hire of custody; as in the cases of agisters of cattle, warehouse-men, wharfingers, factors, and bailiffs. 4. Carriage of goods. 5. An enumeration of excepted cases from the common doctrine of hire, which are embraced in, 6. Postmasters. 7. Inn-keepers. 8. Common-carriers by water and by land. 9. Carriers of passengers; as in stage-coaches, steam-boats, and passenger-ships. 10. Special or quasi bailees for hire, relating to the possession of property by captors, revenue officers, prize-agents, officers of courts, and salvors.

Under each head of his work the author discusses fully the rights and obligations of the respective parties; their duties and responsibilities as derived from the implied contract, and how far they may be modified in effect and extent by express agreement; the degree of diligence required of the bailee, the various remedies by action, the burden of proof, &c. He has embraced the whole of the common law

of bailments in the most complete and methodical manner, and has shed a bright light over the entire subject. Nor is this all. He has embodied in his work a luminous commentary on the civil law in relation to the doctrine of Bailments, and on the derivative codes of France, Germany, Spain, and Scotland. He has pointed out how far the common law and the civil law differ, the greater extent and refinement of the latter, its nice speculations, and its more diversified aspects. He has bestowed upon the treatise of Sir William Jones the high praise it merits, and has carefully corrected the errors into which that learned jurist was betrayed by an overweening love of Justinian's Code. He has commented with ability upon the doubtful and anomalous adjudications of the common law, and assigned his reasons with precision and force.

In regard to arrangement, and clear and full conception of the law of Bailments, Judge Story's "Commentaries" are of the highest value. They are also written in a simple and unpretending but pure style. They are a happy illustration of the union he recommends of "the elaborate, theoretical fulness and accuracy, and the ascending to the elementary principles of the science," which characterize the works of foreign jurists, and what are called the *practical* treatises of the common law, "which, with few exceptions, contain little more than a collection of the principles laid down in the adjudged cases, with scarcely an attempt to illustrate them by any general reasoning, or even to follow them out into collateral consequences." It is in this way only that legal commentaries, by combining the two modes, can be rendered interesting to the general scholar and man of literary taste, out of the walks of the profession. The dry and somewhat technical features of the common law would thus be divested of some of their terrors, and philosophy would enlarge its boundaries and its power. The very valuable Commentaries of Chancellor Kent, on American law, form, in like manner, an apt illustration of the advantages of the union of which we have spoken; and the fulness of time is come when we should set an example to our English brethren in this respect, which they may at no distant day be inclined to follow, as they are already silently following us by copying our improvements in the code of criminal law.

The "Commentaries," of which we have given a slight notice, are the *first fruits* of the Dane Professorship of law in Harvard University. With such first fruits we look forward with pleasure to those subsequent and more important treatises, especially on national and constitutional law, that are required by the venerable and learned founder from those who shall fill the office of Professor. No one is more competent to the whole duty than the present incumbent, whose entire professional career has been full of assiduous and enlightened labors. American jurisprudence is largely indebted to him for its healthful and vigorous growth, and looks to him for future and extensive benefits.

The present volume has but little to do with local law. It is on the contrary upon a subject of almost universal extent and obligation, and will therefore speedily pass into general circulation. It will be of equal value and of almost equal authority in every part of the Union. Besides, it is a *full treatise*, and one that was much needed, particularly by the younger members of the profession, and extends to them in some good degree the benefits enjoyed by the students at the Law School of the University under the more immediate instruction of the author.

We will quote in conclusion the apposite closing remarks of our author, briefly showing his estimate of the importance of a knowledge of the civil code to the American jurist.

"These 'Commentaries upon the Law of Bailments' are now brought to a conclusion. Upon a review of the whole subject it will at once occur to the reader, what a great variety of topics, discussed in the civil and foreign law, remains wholly unsettled in the common law. He will also be struck with the many ingenious and subtle distinctions, singular cases, refined speculations, and theoretical inquiries, to which the free habits of the civilians conduct them in the course of their reasoning. Let it be remembered, however, that if some of these distinctions and speculations and inquiries seem remote from the practical doctrines of the common law, they may yet be of great utility in the investigation and illustration of elementary principles. They employed the genius and exhausted the learning of many of the greatest jurists of all antiquity; and were thought worthy of being embodied in the texts of Justinian's immortal Codes. In modern times the noblest minds have felt a life of laborious diligence well rewarded by gathering together illustrative commentaries in aid of these texts. What, indeed, was juridical

wisdom in the best days of imperial Rome ; what is yet deemed the highest juridical wisdom in the most enlightened and polished nations of continental Europe ; ought not to be, and cannot be, matter of indifference to any, who study the law, not as a mere system of arbitrary rules, but as a rational science. The common law has silently borrowed many of its best principles and expositions of the law of contracts, and especially of commercial contracts, from the Continental jurisprudence. To America may yet be reserved the honor of still further improving it, by a more intimate blending of the various lights of each system in her own administration of civil justice." pp. 393, 394.

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**ART. XIII. — *A Charge to the Grand Jury of the County of Suffolk for the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, at the opening of the Municipal Court of the City of Boston, on the First Monday of December A. D. 1831.***  
By PETER OXENBRIDGE THACHER, Judge of that Court.  
Boston. S. N. Dickinson. 1832. 8vo. pp. 20.

THE Municipal Court, over which Judge Thacher has for several years presided, has original jurisdiction, concurrent with the Supreme Judicial Court, of all crimes not capital, arising within the county of Suffolk. It was created in 1799, in order to meet the wants of a metropolis and sea-port, and to advance the means in criminal cases of obtaining right and justice promptly and without delay.

The Charge before us was delivered to the Grand Jury at the opening of the Court in December last. It reminds us of those beautiful discourses delivered by Sir William Jones to the grand juries of Calcutta. It embraces a brief and succinct view of the duties of jurors in the administration of justice, appropriate remarks on punishments, and a pretty full consideration of the law relative to the preservation of the public peace. This last is a topic particularly fit to be laid before the grand jury, and one in which all the well-intentioned part of the community ought to feel a deep interest. We have here, indeed, none of those exciting causes which occasion such disorder and outrage in that land from which are derived our language and our laws. Neither have we an uninformed populace, ever ready to be stirred up to mutiny. With us there is knowledge, and equality, and an open field

for talent and industry, with an attendant persuasion, that the law is the great guaranty of all that is possessed, and that its sovereignty, "crowning good, repressing ill," must in no way be impaired. This enlightened and pervading public opinion is a stronger conservator of the peace than the whole posse of horse-guards and special constables, which the police of London can call forth. Yet it would be as unsafe to rely upon this alone against domestic commotion, as carelessly to depend upon the broad Atlantic for our defence against danger from abroad. The riot at Providence last September tells us loudly, that the mob has its power with us, and that the agency of an efficient police is needed to restrain it.

Judge Thacher has clearly developed the authority of the civil officer in calling out all good citizens to render aid in the execution of the laws. "His power is proportioned to the exigence of the case. The force to be applied is to be regulated by his discretion, and whatever force used by him can be shown to be necessary for the restoration of the peace, will be justified by the occasion." This is a power derived from the common law; and is not unlike, in its character and extent, that entrusted in pressing times to the Roman consul, when he was bidden to see that the state came to no harm. The sufficiency of this power Sir William Jones has established in his short tract, entitled "The Legal Mode of Suppressing Riots," suggested, as he informs us, by the fearful commotions of 1780, when the Parliament itself was beset by an infuriate mob, the courts of Westminster Hall interrupted in full Term, the prisons broken open, the houses of the first magistrates given to pillage and flames, and the streets made to flow with the wasted contents of breweries and distilleries, — the whole presenting a picture very like to that of Rome in one of her worst days of anarchy, "*urbem sine legibus, sine judiciis, sine jure, sine fide, relictam direptioni et incendiis.*"

Judge Thacher's "Charge" contains reflections, principles, and facts, interesting to all. We wish to see a more general concern felt for what pertains to the law; and we look to the publications of tracts of this character, as likely, in no small degree, to produce this concern. In this age of lyceums and lectures, we wonder that no means are taken to extend a knowledge of the first principles and elements of

those laws, which are the guardians of the lives and property of us all, and which, with a just severity, suppose no man ignorant of their provisions. The Roman boys, so Cicero tells us, were obliged to learn the Twelve Tables by heart ; and it was a similar feature in the Code of Minos, which recommended it to the admiration of Plato. An act was passed in the early legislation of Pennsylvania, " for teaching the laws in the schools." We know nothing of the consequences of this enactment ; but we greatly respect its spirit. The law is a science which can be made in a degree interesting to all. The elements of natural, international, and constitutional law, and the general doctrines which govern property, real and personal, contracts, sales, and particularly the administration of criminal justice, can be displayed in a view as instructive and entertaining, as any of the discourses now so common on the principles of science and philosophy. To those, and we fear the number is not small, who have an instinctive dread of the law, as a realm where darkness ever dwells and hope never comes, such a view would be especially profitable. It would show, if correctly displayed, the variety of circumstances and interests over which the law presides ; the conflicts of rights which it settles, the security to property and life which it confirms. The reasonable citizen would admire the immensity of the system, and see in its faults only what is incident to every thing human. He would have a wider view of his duties to government, and be able more readily and advantageously to control his property. He would be more firm and less petulant in the assertion of his rights, when he saw the ground upon which they rested ; and for the same reason, he would be more regardful of the rights of others. If such a knowledge could be generally diffused, contentious suits, in Lord Bacon's phrase, would be spewed out of the court-room, and the wise use and application of the law be made easy to the Judges.



ART. XIV. — *A Discourse delivered before the Boston Mercantile Association, and Others assembled on their Invitation, on Tuesday Evening, February 7, 1832.* By WILLIAM SULLIVAN. Boston. Carter & Hendee. 1832. 8vo. pp. 36.

THE Society before which this "Discourse" was delivered was formed several years ago, and is composed principally of merchants, and of young men who are preparing for trade. The society has in view the mutual improvement of its members by means of lectures and a library, and also the elevation of the mercantile character, by inculcating the importance of a knowledge of the principles of business and their application to practice, by giving countenance and protection to deserving youth, and sustaining those of their number who, through the uncertainty of trade, or the conduct of others, have met with a reverse of fortune, and have preserved an untarnished name.

It is the design of Mr. Sullivan in this "Discourse" to give "a familiar application of well-known truths to the society and to its purposes." It is not, as it was not intended to be, an elaborate performance; but it presents wholesome views of a practical nature, and forcibly inculcates upon the young the importance of good conduct and pure morals, not only for the benefit of the example to others, but also as it regards the individual himself, and his prospects of immediate and future happiness.

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ART. XV. — *Delectus Sententiarum Græcarum, ad usum Tyrionum accommodatus; cum Notulis et Lexico.* Editio Americana Tertia Prioribus Emendatio. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1832. 12mo. pp. 103.

THIS little volume we have always thought well adapted for the youngest classes in Greek. We are glad to see, by this new edition, that it retains a place in the public favor. It is neatly and correctly printed, and will be found a useful and easy introduction to the study of Greek. It has been too well, and too long known, to need further specification from us.

ART. XVI. — *German and English Phrases and Dialogues, for the Use of Students in the German Language.* Collected by FRANCIS GRAETER. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins. 1831. 12mo. pp. 216.

A PHRASE-BOOK, containing the most familiar and idiomatic expressions and terms used in conversation, is, next to a dictionary and a grammar, the most important part of the apparatus required for the acquisition of a foreign language. Students of the German language will find in Mr. Graeter's book a copious and very judicious collection of terms and modes of expression, which from their constant occurrence in books, as well as in daily conversation, and from their idiomatic structure and complexion, leave the learner most frequently at a loss for an explanation which even the most copious dictionary will not always, or at least not readily, supply. Mr. Graeter has taken most of the materials for his book from Perrin's "English and German Dialogues," and Lloyd's "Collection of Idioms"; or rather he has composed them anew, sifting every part, and augmenting and improving the whole from his own judgment and experience in teaching.

The first part consists of exercises on the elements of grammar; the second contains familiar dialogues on various subjects; the third is a collection of English idioms with a German translation. Some examples showing the position of the verb, and a few forms of letters and notes, are added. Among the Dialogues, that on the study of languages, and of the German language in particular, contains many excellent, original, and practical suggestions.

We cordially approve the book, and recommend it to schools and colleges, as well as to those who may wish to study the language without the aid of an instructor.

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ART. XVII. — *The American School Geography, embracing a General View of Mathematical, Physical, and Civil Geography; adapted to the Capacities of Children. With an Atlas.* By BARNUM FIELD, A. M. Boston. William Hyde. 1831. 12mo. pp. 152.

WE find in the Preface of this "Geography" the following remarks: "To describe as many surfaces and climates

as we have States and Territories in our country, with the like exactness on other unimportant matters, will tend but little to elevate the mind. This exactness we often find required of the learner, as it regards characteristics and localities of some of the smallest places, not only in our own country, but of those in foreign countries. There can be but little advantage to the mind in the exercise of acquiring such knowledge, while the information itself is as unimportant as the mineralogy of the frigid zone."

To say nothing of the style of this, and other portions of the Preface, we have an objection to the observations here quoted. Perhaps it is the most difficult thing in early education to concentrate the wandering attention of the yet undisciplined pupil upon the studies immediately before him; but nothing is of more essential advantage in this respect than the habit of uniform exactness in the minutiae of each individual performance. All knowledge, too, is valuable; and the exemplification contained in the last sentence of the above extract is uncalled for and misplaced. For whatever the author may think of the "mineralogy of the frigid zone," no philosophical man would speak of information on such a subject as unimportant.

We have examined this "Geography" carefully, but cannot perceive the justice of its claims to preëminence. It does not, of course, pretend to originality. The changes in arrangement are not improvements, and the changes in expression are frequently for the worse. The language is often loose and inaccurate, and the definitions sometimes incorrect. For instance,

"**GOVERNMENT.** There are three principal kinds of government—Monarchy, Aristocracy, and Democracy. All governments partake in some degree of these three elementary systems." p. 20.

What is the monarchical element in a democracy? What is the democratical element in an absolute monarchy? Again,

"**CHRISTIANITY** is the worship of the true God, and is contained in the Scriptures." p. 21.

Christianity, considered as a system of doctrines and precepts, is contained in the Scriptures, but, considered as the actual worship of God, cannot be.

We have, on page 10, a wood-cut, of which fortunately for our comprehension, the following explanation is given.

"This picture embraces some of the most prominent natural divisions and noted animals of the world, and also vessels sailing upon the ocean." In the centre of this picture stands what we take to be an ostrich. Around him is a circle the diameter of which is about a tenth part of the diameter of the picture, which represents a sandy desert. At some distance from this formidable personage, an elephant is seen groping his way in the darkness, about fifty miles shorter than the ostrich. The lordly lion has lost his tail beneath an ink-blot. A whale, about half as large as the ostrich, extending through ten degrees of latitude, appears to be sneaking off, into an unfathomable abyss of ink.

The Atlas is very deficient. It can be of little use to beginners, and of none to proficients.

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- ART. XVIII. — 1. *A View of the United States, for the Use of Schools and Families.* By the Rev. HOSEA HILDRETH, Author of Books for "New-Hampshire and Massachusetts Children." Second edition. Boston. Carter, Hendee, & Babcock. 1831. 12mo. pp. 166.
2. *An Abridged History of the United States of America. For the Use of Schools. Intended as a Sequel to Hildreth's View of the United States.* Boston. Carter, Hendee, & Babcock. 1831. 12mo. pp. 248.

THIS "View of the United States," and the preceding little books mentioned in its title-page, without the commonly received arrangement of systems of geography, are suited to convey much instruction in an engaging manner. The "View" is a mixture of history and geography, bearing some resemblance to a book of travels; and as a school-book is somewhat original, and must, we think, be very useful.

The "Abridged History" is executed with remarkable success; it having been the author's "aim to be plain, brief, and accurate; and to trace the general course of events with such clearness of arrangement and sprightliness of style as a small abridgment would allow." No work, we believe, upon this subject, and in the same compass, is written in a style at once so pleasing and so level to the comprehension of youth, and contains the same amount of historical information so well selected, arranged, and condensed.

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NOTE I. *Article on Sebastian Cabot.* — There is one further fact, fully proved by the author of the "Memoir," that should have been mentioned in the review of the work, and that is, that Sebastian Cabot was a native of England. Richard Eden in his *Decades of the New World*, an old work of high authority, from which Hakluyt, we are told, borrowed largely without acknowledgment, states expressly, that *Sebastian Cabot was born in England, and at the age of four years was carried by his father to Venice, and afterward returned with him to England*; which circumstance gave rise to the erroneous statements made by many writers that he was born in Venice. It may be added, that Eden was personally acquainted with Sebastian, and derived the information from him.

II. In our remarks upon Leverett's Juvenal and Persius, we said that the text of his Juvenal is taken from a recent edition of Ruperti. The text of Persius is that of Koenig. The edition of Ruperti and Koenig, which furnished the text of Mr. Leverett's Juvenal and Persius, was printed at Glasgow, in 1825. *Impensis Ricardi Priestley, Londini.* Editors of the ancient Classics should apprise the public of facts of this kind, which are of some importance, and which cost nothing to those who furnish or those who purchase the works.

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## LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

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DANTE. — The following account of the earliest editions of Dante is occasioned by the accession of a rare copy of his *Commedia* to the Library of Harvard College.

FIRST COMMENTARY ON DANTE. — SPIRA'S EDITION OF BENVENUTO DA IMOLA. The first commentary upon the *Commedia* of Dante is said to have been that undertaken by his sons, Pietro and Giacomo, in the year 1334, thirteen years after the death of the poet. In 1350, Visconti, Archbishop of Milan, appointed a body of six learned men, two philosophers, two theologians, and two Florentine literati, to compile a commentary upon Dante; a work which probably was executed, but which never was published. In the year 1373, the Republic of Florence elected Giovanni Boccaccio to read and explain to his countrymen the *Divina Commedia*. He lectured on the poem in the church of St. Stephen, but having survived his election less than two years, he extended his expositions no further than the 17th Canto of the *Inferno*. This commentary was for the first time printed at Naples, but dated Florence, 1724. The first complete body of Notes written upon Dante, therefore, was that of *Benvenuto de' Rambaldi da Imola*, who having, soon after the death of Boccaccio, been appointed to lecture upon the *Divina Commedia* in Bologna, after ten years of incessant labor, produced finally, in 1385, a complete commentary on Dante, full of historical anecdotes, and distinguished for that learning, which the author had acquired in the course of a long life. This comment, written in Latin, was first published by Ludovico Antonio Muratori, in the first volume of his *Antiquitates Italicae Medii Aevi*, in 1738. There existed, however, an Italian translation of it, made by an anonymous writer, and printed at Venice in 1477; five years after the first edition of the poem, which was published at Foligno, in 1472, by John Numeister, with the following title: "La Commedia di Dante Alighieri, nella quale tracta di pene et punizioni de vicii et demeriti, et premii delle virtudi." The Italian translation of the commentary of Benvenuto da Imola of 1477, was printed by Vandelin, brother of John, da Spira, the two German typographers, who in 1469 established the first press in Venice. It is the third edition of Dante in the order of time, and has become so rare as not to be found in many public libraries, even of Italy. A copy of this truly curious work has been lately presented by O. Rich, Esq., of London, to the Library of Harvard University. It is in an excellent state of preservation, and one of the few perfect copies, probably, now extant. It fully corresponds to the description given of it by Haym. It is a folio volume of three hundred and seventy-two leaves, printed in two columns, in gothic letters. It is preceded by

the life of Dante, written by Boccaccio, which occupies the first fifteen leaves, which, according to Fournier, are wanting in most copies; and it is followed by a sonnet in praise of the poet by the same author. It is without capital letters, which were generally left to be painted, or, as it was then termed, *illuminated*; and it has no title-page. The book closes with the following sonnet descriptive of the edition.

- "F inita e lopera delinclito e divo  
dante alleghieri fiorentin poeta  
la cui anima sancta alberga lieta  
nel ciel seren ove sempre il fia vivo
- D imola benvenuto mai sia privo  
deterna fama che sua mansueta  
lyra oporo comentando il poeta  
per cui il texto a noi e intellectivo
- C hristoval Berandi pisasurense detti  
opera e facto indegno correctore  
per quanto intese di quella i subietti
- D e spiera vendelin fu il stampatore  
del mille quattro cento e settantasetti  
correvan gli anni del nostro Signore."

At the top of the 16th page is found the following *Rubric*: "La Commedia di Dante allighieri di Firenze, nella quale tracta di pene et punimenti de vitii et demeriti, et premii et delle virtudi."

This edition, so much celebrated by all bibliographers, is generally known as "the Divina Commedia of Dante with the comment of Benvenuto da Imola, by Vandelin da Spira, Venice, 1477, fol.; *édition rare et recherchée*." (Vide *Haym, Brunet, Fournier, and Duclos and Cail-lean.*)

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GLOSSARY OF ARCHAIC AND PROVINCIAL WORDS, OR A SUPPLEMENT TO THE DICTIONARIES OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, particularly those of DR. JOHNSON and DR. WEBSTER, containing, 1. A Large Collection of Words, occurring in *early* English Authors of reputation, not to be found in the Dictionaries of Dr. Johnson and Dr. Webster, with Authorities and Illustrations; 2. Additional Illustrations of some Words, which are found in those Dictionaries; 3. A Large Collection of Words still used in many Parts of England, though not admitted into the Dictionaries,—relics of the old Language of the English Nation, with ample Illustrations; 4. An Introductory Essay on the Origin and History of the English Language. By the late Rev. JONATHAN BOUCHER, A. M. and F. S. A., Vicar of Epsom, in the County of Surrey. To be edited by the Rev. Joseph Hunter, F. S. A.

Mr. Boucher, whose work as above described is proposed to be published, was a native of that part of England, where exist more remains of the language anciently spoken by all classes of persons, than in parts where a refinement, or a supposed refinement, has extended itself. He was a good classical scholar; and had an extensive acquaintance with the languages spoken by ruder nations, whence springs so much of our own.

The Dictionary of Dr. Johnson was, when Boucher was preparing his work, the only English Dictionary which professed to exhibit the wealth of the English tongue. Mr. Boucher saw the value of that Dictionary, as "a Dictionary of the Language, as spoken and written by the best speakers, and best modern writers." But he saw too that it wanted many words, which were as fairly entitled to the appellation of English, as any of those to which Dr. Johnson had done such ample justice; and these words it was his object to collect and illustrate.

When Mr. Boucher's work was advancing to maturity, he issued proposals for printing by subscription, in two volumes, 4to., *Lingua Anglicana Veleris Thesaurus*, or a Glossary of the Ancient English Language. A Specimen of the Work was printed in 1807, under the care of Sir Frederick Morton Eden, a friend of Mr. Boucher, and a contributor to his stores: this consists only of the letter A. The value of this tract has long been known to all, who are curiously inquiring into the history and structure of our language, or into the manners and customs of the English nation; and they concur in the opinion expressed by Mr. Todd, in the Preface to his edition of Dr. Johnson's Dictionary, that it abundantly, as well as most learnedly shows, how much remains to be done, in order to have a perfect view of the English language.

The proprietors of the English edition of Dr. Webster's Dictionary entered into a negotiation for the purchase of the MS., designing that it should appear in the same form as that Dictionary, and to serve as a Supplement to it, and also, as was the intention of the author, as a Supplement to the Dictionary of Dr. Johnson. This negotiation has been satisfactorily concluded, and they now announce the intention of publishing the work in Paris, the first of which, it is proposed, shall appear on the first day of February, 1832.

THE LONDON CATALOGUE OF BOOKS, with their sizes and prices and publishers. Containing the books published in London, and those entered in size or price, from the year 1810 to 1831. This is pronounced, in the London *Athenæum*, to be a work of more value than its name might lead the reader to believe. It contains a great deal of information, in a condensed form, which no one has before seen fit to collect, for which LITERARY MEN in particular are constantly at a loss.

NEW BOOKS.—By a paper recently issued in London, containing lists of New Books and principal Engravings in that city, during the past year, it appears that the number of New Books is about 1100, exclusive of new editions, pamphlets or periodicals, being fifty less than in the year 1830.

RAMMOHUN ROY.—The following works are expected from this distinguished Asiatic, as announced in Bent's Literary Gazette for January. AN ESSAY ON THE RIGHTS OF HINDOOS OVER ANCESTRAL PROPERTY, according to the Laws of Bengal.—REMARKS ON EAST INDIA AFFAIRS; with a Dissertation on the Ancient Boundaries of India, its Civil and Religious Divisions, and Suggestions for the future Government of the Country.



LIST OF BOOKS PUBLISHED AND IN PRESS,  
FOR MARCH, 1832.

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*Carey & Lea, Philadelphia.*

- A Manual of Medical Jurisprudence, by Michael Ryan, M. D. 8vo.  
American Quarterly Review for March, 1832.  
A Treatise on Hydrostatics and Pneumatics, by Rev. Dionysius Lardner,  
LL. D. 12mo.  
Larrey's Surgical Memoirs, Translated from the French. By John C. Mer-  
cer. 8vo.

*J. & J. Harper, New York.*

- The Polish Chiefs, an Historical Novel. 2 vols. 12mo.  
Memoirs of the Empress Josephine. 18mo.  
The Court and Camp of Bonaparte. 18mo.  
Eugene Aram. By the Author of "Pelham," &c. 2 vols. 12mo.

*Protestant Episcopal Press, New York.*

- Piety without Asceticism, the Protestant Kompla. By Bishop Jebb. 12mo.

*William Marshall, Providence.*

- Nautical Reminiscences, by the Author of "Mariner's Sketches." 12mo.

*Richardson, Lord, & Holbrook, Boston.*

*In Press.*

The Economical Atlas, for the Use of Families and Young Persons; contain-  
ing Thirty-Four Maps, with Various Tables of Population, &c.; with Engrav-  
ings of Costumes, Curiosities, &c.

Lyra Sacra; consisting of Anthems, Motets, Chants, Sentences, &c., origi-  
nal and Selected, most of which are short, easy of performance, and appropriate  
to the common and various occasions of Public Worship. By Lowell Mason,  
Editor of the Handel and Haydn Society Collection of Church Music.

The Introductory Discourse and Lectures delivered before the American  
Institute of Instruction in Boston, 1831. With an Essay on the Construction  
of School Houses; with a Plan.

*In Press.*

Bible Illustrations, or a Description of the Manners and Customs of the East,  
especially explanatory of the Sacred Scriptures.

Parley's Book of the most Remarkable Curiosities in the World.

*Hilliard, Gray, & Co., Boston.*

- Pickering's Lexicon. 8d edition.  
Poems. By Hannah F. Gould. 18mo.

*In Press.*

Enfield's Philosophy. 4th edition. 8vo.

*Carter & Hendee, Boston.*

History of the Cholera Morbus. Translated from the French. By A. S. Doane. 8vo.

Bernard's Recollections of the Stage. 2 vols. 12mo.

Stories from Common Life. 16mo.

*In Press.*

Rudiments of the Italian Language; or Easy Lessons in Spelling and Reading, with an Abridgment of the Grammar; adapted to the Capacities of Children. By Pietro Bachi, Instructor in Harvard University. 16mo.

Gli Inni Gioveuili della Signora Anna Letizia Barbauld, tradotti in Italiano. Ad uso dei Fanciulli che imparano la Lingua. Nuova edizione, corretta e migliorata da Pietro Bachi, Precettore nell' Università Harvardiana. 16mo.

*Cottons & Barnard, Boston.**In Press.*

A Comparative View of the Italian and Spanish Languages; or an Easy Method of Learning Spanish for those who are already acquainted with the Italian. By Pietro Bachi, Instructor in Harvard University. 1 vol. 12mo.

*William Hyde & Co., Boston.*

The Pious Minstrel. 24mo.

*In Press.*

The Missionary Gazetteer. By Charles Williams. With Improvements, by the American Editors.

*Gray & Bowen, Boston.*

Rev. Mr. Greenwood's Sermon at the Ordination of the Rev. Mr. Thompson, at Salem. 8vo.

Life of Hannah Adams. 12mo.

*In Press.*

Proverbs Dramatiques. 12mo.

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THE  
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MAY, 1832.

**ART. I. — *Ornithological Biography, or an Account of the Habits of the Birds of the United States of America, accompanied by Descriptions of the Objects represented in the Work entitled "The Birds of America," and interspersed with Delineations of American Scenery and Manners.*** By JOHN JAMES AUDUBON, F. R. SS. L. and E., &c. Philadelphia. Judah Dobson, Agent. 1831. 8vo. pp. 512.

THIS work is preceded by an Introductory Address to the reader, in which the author with great simplicity gives some account of his life, chiefly as connected with his favorite pursuit. The auto-biographical sketch answers all the purpose of procuring the reader's favor and good will, but disappoints his curiosity in regard to a few particulars of time and place. For the information of his readers on the other side of the Atlantic, where his book was first published, Mr. Audubon says that he was born in the New World ; but does not inform them in what part of this wide New World, or at what time the event happened. His earliest recollections under paternal guidance and instruction were associated with the productions of nature. "My father," he says, "generally accompanied my steps, procured birds and flowers for me with great eagerness, pointed out the elegant movements of the former, the beauty and softness of their plumage, the manifestations of their pleasure or sense of danger, . . . spoke of their departure and return with the seasons, their haunts, and, more wonderful than all, their change of livery ; thus exciting me to study them, and to raise my mind towards their great Creator."

A deep moral impression from these early associations, a constant recognition of an intelligent Creator and a beneficent design in the organization of plants and flowers, and in the mechanism and habits of birds and various animals, are alike noticeable and engaging in this ardent naturalist, who, in his toils and difficulties and dangers, was sustained, relieved, and rescued by that superintending Providence in which he cheerfully confided. Thus it is that his religious feelings do not burst forth merely in fits of admiration, but abide with him in his whole career. When at a certain time his money, necessary for his small travelling expenses, was stolen from him, and he was almost worn out with the fatigues of his peregrinations, he thanks God that he "has never despaired, while rambling thus for the sole purpose of admiring his grand and beautiful works." This devout spirit breaks out in words alike free from affectation and from shame. And on one occasion, when he sat down to sup, at an inn, with strangers, "every individual," he says, "looking upon me as a Missionary priest, on account of my hair, which in those days flowed loosely on my shoulders, I was asked to say grace, which I did with a fervent spirit." \*

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\* This allusion of the "American Woodsman," as the author styles himself, to his personal appearance, calls up our recollection of a description given of him in *Blackwood's Magazine* for July last. "When some five years ago we first set eyes on him in a party of literati in 'stately Edinborough throned on crags,' he was such an American woodsman as took the shine out of us modern Athenians. Though dressed, of course, somewhat after the fashion of ourselves, his long raven locks hung curling over his shoulders yet unshorn from the wilderness. They were shaded across his open forehead with a simple elegance, such as a civilized Christian might be supposed to give his 'fell of hair,' when practising 'every man his own perruquier,' in some liquid mirror in the forest glade, employing, perhaps, for a comb, the claw of the Bald Eagle. His sallow, fine-featured face bespoke a sort of wild independence, and then such an eye—keen as that of the falcon! His foreign accent and broken English speech—for he is of French descent—removed him still farther out of the commonplace circle of this every-day world of ours; and his whole demeanor—it might be with us partly imagination—was colored to our thought by a character of conscious freedom and dignity, which he had habitually acquired in his long and lonely wanderings among the woods, where he had lived in the unaccompanied love and delight of Nature, and in the studious observation of all the ways of her winged children, that for ever fluttered over his paths, and roosted on the tree at whose feet he lay at night, beholding them still the sole images that haunted his dreams. All this we admit must have had over it a

His fondness for the works of nature did not abate as he advanced towards manhood. He coveted every thing he saw, particularly of the feathered tribe; but "the moment a bird was dead, however beautiful it had been when in life, the pleasure became blunted;" since, after all attempts to preserve it in perfection, "it could no longer be said to be fresh from the hands of its Maker." As the best substitute for living specimens his father furnished him with *Illustrations*, which delighting but not satisfying the cravings of his appetite, "gave him a desire to copy nature." His first unavailing attempts at imitation produced vexation and disgust, but not despair. At the age of seventeen, after having been some time in France for acquiring the rudiments of education, and having become skilled in drawing under the instruction of David, he returned to this country, to the woods of the New World, with fresh ardor, and commenced and continued a collection of drawings under the title of "The Birds of America."\* His first rambles were in the neighbourhood of his "plantation" in Pennsylvania, bordering on the Schuylkill, which was given him by his father. And though it was his greatest delight to listen to the songsters of the grove, and bear home his "feathered prize," yet ere long his ear was ravished by sweeter notes, and he graced his home with a richer prize, another self. He found all attempts in the way of business, which he seems to have entered upon, in obedience to the expectations of friends, and from a sense of what was due to his new domestic relation, altogether fruitless; so that at length, "breaking through all bonds,"

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strong tincture of imagination; for we had been told of his wandering life and his wonderful pencil; but the entire appearance of the man was most appropriate to what had for so many years been his calling, and bore upon it, not to be mistaken for a moment or overlooked, the impress, not of singularity, but of originality; in one word, of genius — self-nursed, self-ripened, and self-tutored among the inexhaustible treasures of the Forest, on which, in one soul-engrossing pursuit, it had lavished its dearest and divinest passion. Nor will this language sound extravagant to those who know Audubon, and that the man is never for an hour distinct, in his being, from the Ornithologist." — *Blackwood's Magazine*. No. 182, pp. 11, 12.

\* The engravings of the first hundred of these drawings were mentioned in the preceding number of this Review, in a note to the review of Nuttall's "Ornithology." Three additional volumes of the same size, it is expected, will complete the work.

he roamed through woods and wilds, over lakes and prairies, peopled and desert portions of the land, from a disinterested love of his pursuit, not dreaming of its final results; till at length with a collection very extensive and his drawings completed, the thought possessed him that he might again visit Europe, and possibly publish his Illustrations.

He embarked for Liverpool, if we have computed the time rightly, in the latter part of the year 1825. But how long previously to this he met with a misfortune which well nigh proved fatal to his hopes and his labors in ornithology, we cannot make out, for there is a singular disregard to dates and chronological order in his narrative. The fact, however, to which we allude is sufficiently remarkable to be stated; and we give it in his own words.

"I left the village of Henderson, in Kentucky, situated on the banks of the Ohio, where I resided for several years, to proceed to Philadelphia on business. I looked to all my drawings before my departure, placed them carefully in a wooden box, and gave them in charge to a relative, with injunctions to see that no injury should happen to them. My absence was of several months; and when I returned, after having enjoyed the pleasures of home for a few days, I inquired after my box, and what I was pleased to call my treasure. The box was produced and opened; but, reader, feel for me — a pair of Norway rats had taken possession of the whole, and had reared a young family among the gnawed bits of paper, which but a few months before represented nearly a thousand inhabitants of the air! The burning heat which instantly rushed through my brain was too great to be endured without affecting the whole of my nervous system. I slept not for several nights, and the days past like days of oblivion, — until the animal powers being recalled into action, through the strength of my constitution, I took up my gun, my note-book, and my pencils, and went forth to the woods as gaily as if nothing had happened. I felt pleased that I could make better drawings than before, and ere a period not exceeding three years had elapsed, I had my portfolio filled again. — *Introductory Address*, pp. 13, 14.

We cannot stop to give a detailed account of the author's transition from a feeling of loneliness and despondency, as he approached the shores of Britain (for the sake of accomplishing his great object, the publication of his Illustrations), to his complete relief by the encouraging and triumphant reception which he met from distinguished individuals and

learned societies in Liverpool and Manchester and Edinburgh, and by the speedy commencement of his vast work, now so far advanced. We conclude, therefore, this notice of his Introductory Address, with the close of the Address itself (than which nothing could be more suited to disarm all criticism), in which he says of the critic,—“Ever since I have known that such a person as himself exists, I have labored harder, with more patience and more care, to gain his good will, indulgence, and support.”

Though Mr. Audubon introduces himself to his reader, and opens himself with great simplicity and frankness in his preliminary address, yet we become more intimately acquainted with him as we accompany him in his rambles amidst the varied scenery he meets, and in his uninterrupted converse with animated nature; and are delighted to find that his companionship with the fowl of heaven, lessens in no degree his kindly feelings to his own species. But we must hasten to take a brief notice of the body of the work.

The volume before us contains an account of one hundred birds, answering to the first hundred of the author's “Illustrations.” The technical descriptions, though sufficiently full and exact, and more so than we might expect from one who speaks with little reverence of *system-makers*, form but a small part of the book. The greater part consists of what answers well to its title. It is a biography of birds; and the biographer tells us only what he has witnessed; or if he mentions any thing else, it is mentioned as that for which he does not vouch, or as an error which he is prepared to correct. It is impossible to go along with him without being fully persuaded that we are listening to the truth. He does not spend his breath in cunningly devised fables or theories to account for what is inexplicable, or beyond the ken of the observer,—such as the disappearance and return of certain species of birds,—and why one species for ever abandons its nest after the production of a single brood, and another comes back to the same nest as to a home for successive years;—he relates only what his own observation has taught him upon these matters. There is something inexpressibly delightful, whatever deductions we may make on account of the author's enthusiasm, in his pictures of the moral qualities, if we may so speak, of his winged associates. He draws familiarly their characters, whether social or solitary, affectionate

or quarrelsome, timid or bold, mild or ferocious, modest or vain, not overlooking their varieties and peculiarities of countenance. With the same particularity he describes their attitudes and motions, their manner of flying, the insects on which they revel, and their modes of procuring them. It is, indeed, surprising to find how many things of this sort are perceived by minute attention, which are passed unnoticed by the common observer.

We must content ourselves with a very few extracts containing partial descriptions of different birds. We know, indeed, where to begin, namely, at the beginning; but we know not where to end, and must therefore measure our quotations by a given number of pages.

The *Wild Turkey* (*Meleagris Gallopavo*, Linn.) is found in the Southern and Western States, and is rarely seen eastward of Pennsylvania. The migrations of this species of birds are for the most part performed on foot. When they come to a river they proceed as follows :

“They betake themselves to the highest eminences, and there often remain a whole day, and sometimes two, as if for the purpose of consultation. During this time the males are heard *gobbling*, calling, and making much ado, and are seen strutting about as if to raise their courage to a pitch befitting the emergency. Even the females and young assume something of the same pompous demeanor, spread out their tails, and run round each other, *purring* loudly and performing extravagant leaps. At length, when the weather appears settled, and all around is quiet, the whole party mounts the top of the highest trees, whence, at a signal, consisting of a single *cluck*, given by a leader, the flock takes flight for the opposite shore. The old and fat birds easily get over, even should the river be a mile in breadth; but the younger and less robust frequently fall into the water, — not to be drowned, however, as might be imagined. They bring their wings close to the body, spread out their tail as a support, stretch forward their neck, and striking out their legs with great vigor, proceed rapidly towards the shore; on approaching which, should they find it too steep for landing, they cease their exertions for a few moments, float down the stream till they come to an accessible part, and by a violent effort generally extricate themselves from the water. It is remarkable, that immediately after thus crossing a large stream, they ramble about for some time, as if bewildered. In this state they fall an easy prey to the hunter.” pp. 2, 3.



The manner in which they escape the assault of the Owl is thus described.

"As Turkeys usually roost in flocks, on naked branches of trees, they are easily discovered by their enemies, the Owls, which, on silent wing approach and hover around them for the purpose of reconnoitring. This, however, is rarely done without being discovered, and a single *cluck* from one of the Turkeys announces to the whole party the approach of the murderer. They instantly start upon their legs, and watch the motions of the Owl, which selecting one as its victim, comes down upon it like an arrow, and would inevitably secure the Turkey, did not the latter at that moment, lower its head, stoop, and spread its tail in an inverted manner over its back, by which action the aggressor is met by a smooth inclined plane, along which it glances without hurting the Turkey; immediately after which the latter drops to the ground, and thus escapes merely with the loss of a few feathers." pp. 8, 9.

An interesting story is told in the author's account of the Wild Turkey, of one which he reared almost from the egg. And though it became so tame as to associate freely with the domestic turkeys and to follow any person calling, it always roosted by itself, on the roof of the house, and took frequent excursions to the neighbouring woods, whence it returned before night-fall. But after a while it extended its liberty, and having been absent several days was thus recognised by the owner.

"I was going towards some lakes to shoot, when, having walked about five miles, I saw a fine large gobbler cross the path before me. Turkeys being then in prime condition for the table, I ordered my dog to chase it, and put it up. The animal went off with great rapidity, and as it approached the Turkey, I saw with great surprise, that the latter paid little attention. Juno was on the point of seizing it, when she suddenly stopped and turned her head towards me, I hastened to them, but you may easily conceive my surprise, when I saw my own favorite bird, and discovered that it had recognised the dog, and would not fly from it; although the sight of a strange dog would have caused it to run off at once. Pray, reader, by what word will you designate the recognition made by my favorite Turkey, of a dog which had been long associated with it in the yards and grounds? Was it the result of instinct or of reason,—an unconsciously revived impression, or the act of an intelligent mind?" p. 14.

The *Purple Martin* is distinguished for its courage, and for its enmity to cats, dogs, and other quadrupeds, as well as to every kind of Hawk, Crow, and Vulture, and to the Eagle, all of which fowls the birds of this species harass and keep at a distance. They are also extremely tenacious of their rights, and particularly of the possession of the place chosen for rearing their young.

"I had," says Mr. Audubon, "a large and commodious house built and fixed on a pole for the reception of Martins, in an enclosure near my house, where for some years several pairs had reared their young. One winter I also put up several small boxes, with a view to invite Blue-birds to build nests in them. The Martins arrived in the spring, and imagining these small apartments more agreeable than their own mansion, took possession of them, after forcing the lovely Blue-birds from their abode. I witnessed the different conflicts, and observed that one of the Blue-birds was possessed of as much courage as his antagonists; for it was only in consequence of the more powerful blows of the Martin, that he gave up his house in which a nest was nearly finished, and he continued on all occasions to annoy the usurper as much as lay in his power. The Martin showed his head at the entrance, and merely retorted with accents of exultation and insult. I thought fit to interfere; mounted the tree on the trunk of which the Blue-bird's box was fastened, caught the Martin and clipped his tail, in the hope that such mortifying punishment might prove effectual in inducing him to move to his own tenement. No such thing; for no sooner had I launched him into the air, than he at once rushed back to the box. I again caught him and clipped the tip of each wing in such a manner that he still could fly sufficiently well to procure food, and once more set him at liberty. The desired effect, however, was not produced; and as I saw the pertinacious Martin keep the box in spite of all my wishes that he should give it up, I seized him in anger, and disposed of him in such a way that he never returned to the neighbourhood." pp. 117, 118.

To the description of the *Wood Thrush* we can only refer our readers; and this we do partly because it is the author's "greatest favorite of the feathered tribe of the forest," and partly because it contains a beautiful train of moral and religious reflections associated with this "hermit of the woods."

The *Barred Owl*, whose discordant and ludicrous screams

Mr. Audubon compares to "the affected bursts of laughter which we may have heard from some of the fashionable members of our own species," is, it seems, not only a bird of wisdom, but a bird of fun.

"How often when snugly settled under the boughs of my temporary encampment, and preparing to roast a venison steak or the body of a squirrel, on a wooden spit, have I been saluted with the exulting bursts of this mighty disturber of the peace, that, had it not been for him, would have prevailed around me, as well as in my lonely retreat! How often have I seen this nocturnal marauder alight within a few yards of me, exposing his whole body to the glare of my fire, and eye me in such a curious manner, that, had it been reasonable to do so, I would gladly have invited him to walk in, and join me in my repast, that I might have enjoyed the pleasure of forming a better acquaintance with him. The liveliness of his motions joined to their oddness, have often made me think that his society would be at least as agreeable as that of many of the buffoons we meet with in the world. But as such opportunities of forming acquaintance have not existed, be content, kind reader, with the imperfect information which I can give you of the habits of this Sancho Panza of our woods.

"Such persons as conclude, when looking upon owls in the glare of day, that they are as they then appear, extremely dull, are greatly mistaken. Were they to state, like Buffon, that Woodpeckers are miserable beings, they would be talking as incorrectly; and to one who had lived only in the woods, they would seem to have lived long in their libraries." pp. 242, 243.

We must pass by the *Mocking Bird*, "the king of song derived from Nature's self"; the *Song Sparrow*, one of the sweetest and most persevering musicians; the frolicsome *Red-headed Woodpecker*, so expert, like all its namesakes, in discovering and procuring insects concealed under the bark of trees; the *Goldfinches* so fond of each other's company, and so cheerfully uniting in their sweet concerts when assembled; the *Tyrant Fly-catcher* (King-bird), hitherto harshly treated and persecuted by man, but generously defended by our author; the different species of *Hawks*, and all the *Warblers*; the *Ruby-throated Humming Bird*, so poetically described, which skilfully draws the insects from the cup of the flower, and "sips so small a portion of its liquid honey, that the theft, we may suppose, is looked upon

with a grateful feeling by the flower, which is thus kindly relieved from the attacks of her destroyers." Omitting the author's account of these and many other birds which afford interesting traits of character, we shall close our review of the "*Ornithological Biography*" with a few words upon the Eagle.

The *White-headed Eagle*, improperly called *Bald Eagle*, probably because the white plumage of its head gives it the appearance of being bare, has more bad than good qualities; and Mr. Audubon laments, with Franklin, that this "bird of bad moral character," which lives by pilfering from others, and does not thrive withal, nor show courage proportioned to its strength, should have been chosen as the emblem or representative of our country.

The *Bird of Washington*, the first sight of which species of Eagle unknown to naturalists, Mr. Audubon obtained in ascending the Mississippi, in 1814, and which he saw a few years afterwards in Kentucky, was finally killed by him not far from Henderson, a village in that state, where he then resided. This king of birds he seems to have regarded, as well he might, the great trophy which was to grace and consummate his triumph, after his signal conquests. But we will take his own description.

"I saw an Eagle rise from a small enclosure not a hundred yards before me, and alight upon a low tree branching over the road. I prepared my double-barrelled piece, which I constantly carry, and went slowly and cautiously towards him. Quite fearlessly he awaited my approach, looking upon me with undaunted eye. I fired and he fell. Before I reached him he was dead. With what delight did I survey the magnificent bird! Had the finest salmon ever pleased him as he did me? Never. I ran and presented him to my friend, with a pride which they alone can feel, who, like me, have devoted themselves from their earliest childhood to such pursuits, and who have derived from them their first pleasures. To others I must seem to 'prattle out of fashion.'

"The name which I have chosen for this new species of Eagle, '*The Bird of Washington*,' may by some be considered as preposterous and unfit; but as it is indisputably the noblest bird of its genus that has yet been discovered in the United States, I trust I shall be allowed to honor it with the name of one who was the saviour of his country.

"All circumstances duly considered, the *Bird of Washing-*

ton stands forth as the champion of America, *sua species*, and henceforth not to be confounded with any of its rivals or relatives. If ornithologists are proud of describing new species, I may be allowed to express some degree of pleasure in giving to the world the knowledge of so majestic a bird." pp. 60, 61, 65.

After the description of every fifth species of birds, in correspondence with the Illustrations, each number of which consists of five, the author pauses, and presents his reader with a description of some place ; of various scenery beautiful or sublime ; of physical phenomena ; or he tells a story which relates to his own experience, tragic, comic, or farcical ; or draws a striking portrait of some individual, or a vivid picture of savage life or rustic hospitality.\*

It is truly delightful amidst the crowd of scrap-books, and discordant fragmentary compilations in natural science, to meet with a work whose professed author is the real author. This is eminently the case with the "Ornithological Biography." Mr. Audubon shot the birds, and examined their whole external conformation. He watched their movements and their employments when alive, examined their nests, ascertained the usual number of their eggs, their periods of incubation, their manner of cherishing their young ; in short, he acquainted himself, by personal observation, with their whole history and manner of life. These circumstances give a peculiar charm to his work, and cause us to look forward with great interest to the volumes which are to come ; and also to another "distinct work," in which, he says, "it is my intention, at some future time, to lay before the public the

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\* There is an air of romantic wildness prevailing the realities of these descriptions, which seems to have had a peculiar charm for some of the Scottish critics. In "Blackwood's Magazine," before referred to, for July and August last, there are most bountiful selections from these and other parts of the book. But the preliminary talk of the reviewers, the filling up, and the digressions, are couched in a reckless and vagrant style, the more mischievous from its sprightliness and wit. There is danger that young and aspiring writers may imitate its eccentricities, without acquiring its virtues, and thus that what was intended merely to please a prurient taste for novelty, may corrupt the unsuspecting novice, if not the more wise and wary scholar. Is not simplicity of style compatible as well with animation and wit, as with beauty and sublimity ? We appeal to the prose-writings of Dryden and Swift and Byron.

observations which I have made on the various Quadrupeds of our extensive territories."

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ART. II. — *The Works of ARCHBISHOP LEIGHTON, prepared for the Practical Use of Private Christians. With an Introductory View of the Life, Character, and Writings of the Author.* By GEORGE B. CHEEVER. Boston. Pierce & Parker. 8vo. pp. 569.

ARCHBISHOP LEIGHTON was born at Edinburgh, in 1611. In 1641, he was ordained pastor of a Presbyterian society near that city, where he remained till 1652. He was shortly after chosen principal of the University of Edinburgh, the duties of which office he discharged honorably and faithfully till 1662. Having changed his views with regard to church government, he was then, together with several other clergymen, appointed by Charles the Second to reestablish the Episcopal Church in Scotland. With characteristic modesty, he procured a nomination to the least important see, — that of Dumblane, where he remained in the diligent and unostentatious discharge of pastoral duty, till in 1669 he was appointed the successor of his friend and admirer, Burnet, Archbishop of Glasgow. In his episcopal office the union of the Episcopal and Presbyterian parties, and the restoration of ecclesiastical peace were the objects of his undivided and anxious effort. He received the usual reward of those who stand on neutral ground, and attempt to act as mediators in religious controversy, — the distrust and dislike of both parties. Finding his pacific labors fruitless, he resigned his office, and in 1674 retired to the estate of a widowed sister, where he spent the remainder of his days, gratuitously discharging ministerial and pastoral duty, shedding around him the light of a good example, relieving the poor, consoling the afflicted, and preparing the dying for death. He died while on an errand of Christian benevolence, at London, in 1684.

Though he was called to fill elevated stations, his life was by no means an eventful one; and his biography is a description of character, rather than a narration of incident.

The most prominent feature of his character was his sincere and ardent piety. "He was remarkable even in childhood for his quiet disposition and affectionate, serious man-

ners. He seems, indeed, to have been sanctified from his earliest years."

"The religion of this preëminent saint," says his biographer, the Rev. J. N. Pearson, "was incorporated with the whole frame of his life and conversation. This gave a peculiarity, which was striking and impressive, to many of his ordinary actions. They were the same things which other men did, but they were done in another manner, and bore the shining print of his angelic spirit. So impressively was this the case, that his nephew, when a little child, struck with his reverential manner of returning thanks after a meal, observed to his mother, that his uncle did not give thanks like other folk." p. xvii.

Few men have enjoyed more richly than he did the religious calm of solitude; few have walked in closer communion with God and heaven. It was in retirement only that he felt truly happy. Yet he never sought the luxury of holy meditation at the expense of duty. But, while he devoted no time to *mere social pleasure*, he was zealous and indefatigable in his benevolent efforts for the temporal and spiritual good of his brethren. He lived with the utmost frugality, kept three fasts a week, and distributed to the poor (generally through the hands of others) all his income, except the slender pittance which his abstemious habits required. And upon the unenlightened peasant, the broken-hearted penitent, the sorely stricken mourner, the sick and the dying, he conferred by his instructions, counsels, and prayers a far more precious gift than that silver and gold which he received only to bestow. Wherever the teachings or consolations of the Gospel were needed, he felt that duty called him, and he carried thither a mind richly stored with spiritual treasure and a heart glowing with fraternal affection, ready to sympathize, willing to communicate, rejoicing in the opportunity of doing good.

Nor was this all. He had a truly liberal and catholic spirit. He regarded piety as the exclusive property of no sect, and as materially affected by the adoption or rejection of none of those unessential forms in which human ingenuity has arrayed Christianity. He seems to have joined the Episcopal party, rather because he thought their form of church government best adapted to promote ecclesiastical peace, than because he was firmly convinced of the divine right of episcopacy and the insufficiency of Presbyterian ordi-

nation. And in the discharge of his Episcopal office, his great object was not to build up his own sect on the ruins of its rivals, but to amalgamate both under a system of church government, which should embrace the excellences and avoid the evils of each form,—under a system which might withdraw the attention of Christians from unessentials, and fix it upon truth and duty.

“ It is related of him,” says his biographer, Pearson, “ that going one day to visit a leading Presbyterian minister, he found him discoursing to his company on the duties of a holy life. Leighton, instead of turning off to the subject of the current reasons for non-conformity, though he had gone for the express purpose of discussing them, instantly fell in with the train of conversation, and concluded his visit without attempting to change it. To some of his friends who remonstrated with him on this apparent oversight; *Nay*, he replied, *the good man and I are in the main agreed; and for the points in which we differ, they are mostly unimportant; and though they be of moment, it is advisable before pressing any, to win as many volunteers as we can.*” p. xxii.

All of Leighton's biographers bestow the highest praise upon his humility. Burnet says, that “ he seemed to have the lowest thoughts of himself possible, and to desire that all other persons should think as meanly of him as he did of himself; and he bore all sorts of ill usage and reproach, like a man that took pleasure in it.” He seems to have had an ineffably mean opinion of himself, not only absolutely with reference to the divine requirements, and his own merits, but relatively in comparison with his brethren. Now to our apprehension he is the exemplar of Christian humility, who takes a just view of his own talents and capacities, and who, while he bows before God in deep contrition for the abuse of his powers and his frequent transgressions, yet assumes among his fellow-men the rank which a just self-examination will assign him, and defends that rank as the post of duty in which God has placed him. We regard, not with admiration, but with pity, nay, with an emotion bordering on contempt, the good man who humbles himself, not only before his holy God, but before the vilest of his fellow-men, and who can receive as justly due to him reproach and insult from those whom he has never injured,—from those whom he has wished and striven to benefit.



It is to this habit of self-depreciation, that we are to attribute Leighton's want of energy. He was far from being an indolent man. His whole life was a life of active benevolence. But we see him constantly shrinking from public responsibility, assuming the episcopal office with extreme reluctance, pursuing (it must be confessed) a vacillating course in behalf of the prime object of his desires, and finally, while yet in full possession of his mental powers and his usual health of body abandoning in despair that object and his office. This apostle of peace indeed thought himself alone. So thought Elijah, when he reared his altar upon Mount Carmel; but his God was with him; the idol fell, and the vast assembly of his worshippers departed shouting the praises of Jehovah. And then the prophet found that seven thousand of his countrymen had never bowed the knee to Baal. Thus, had Leighton persevered in his pacific efforts, he might through the aid of the God of peace have effected the desired reconciliation; and in such an event he would doubtless have found that the hearts and the prayers and the regret and the secret endeavours of thousands of holy men had all along been with him.

We have been thus minute in our outline of Leighton's moral qualities, because they, rather than any mental peculiarity, give a character to his works. These present the highest standard of Christian virtue, and bear the impress of a mind of almost unearthly purity, ever striving after perfection. They were written solely for edification, are admirably adapted to that end, and adapted to no other. Leighton treats almost exclusively of practical subjects,—says much of duties, little of doctrines, scarcely any thing of forms and ceremonies. The deep interest which he took in those under his influence may be discerned on every page. His deep humility is as evident in his writings as it was in his life. He ever presents the highest views of the divine requirements, and the lowest possible of human virtue. We should, indeed, have been better pleased to find the *true ground* of Christian humility, namely, the dignity and capacities of our nature, more distinctly brought to view. We have always thought that such low views of human nature, as we find in this author, tend to foster pride rather than humility; for a man who thinks that in opposition to the very laws and tendency of his nature he has acquired some

degree of virtue, has better ground for boasting than for self-abasement.

We have never been acquainted with an author whose style of thought and language is so *scriptural*. Almost every paragraph unfolds some sentiment borrowed from the Scriptures. His imagery is almost exclusively scriptural. His familiarity with the sacred volume seems to have arrayed all objects in an Asiatic dress, so that his allusions even to the scenery about him, and to the habits and manners of his contemporaries, would apply almost as well to Palestine and its ancient tenants, as to England and his countrymen.

He is always solemn and fervid, seldom energetic, never sublime. His sole aim is to instil into his hearer's or reader's mind the principles and sentiments that pervade his own ; and he therefore never shrouds thought behind a rich, but impenetrable veil of rhetorical drapery. He expresses himself with the most perfect simplicity, like a man pouring forth his whole soul in confidential communion with his dearest friend ; and he employs figurative language only to illustrate or impress the ideas which he intends to convey.

"His style is pure, unelaborate English. It is a fountain of genuine native idioms. His pages sparkle with expressions, which without degenerating into tameness, possess a delightful colloquial simplicity. There is more of the Saxon part of our language than of words of other origin. His words are, indeed, unexampled in that age for simplicity and purity ; and they seem to arrange themselves as self-intelligent, in the easiest and most unpremeditated forms, like dew imperceptibly descending on the mown grass." pp. xlv, xlvi.

He is said to have been a man of great learning. He wrote in the Latin language with much ease and a good degree of purity. He frequently makes felicitous classical allusions and citations. As a biblical critic, his scriptural expositions would place him very far below his great contemporaries Lightfoot, Whitby, and Locke. His writings display not theological research. He seems to have early imbibed the tenets of the Genevan school, then dominant in Scotland, and to have been deterred from putting them to the test of reason and Scripture, not by fear that he might find them false, but by a conviction that to fathom them was hopeless, and to doubt them sacrilegious. He, therefore, throughout his works takes the Calvinistic system for granted.

But his Calvinism is neither harsh nor obtrusive ; and if his readers will think of him only as a Christian and a holy man, and will seek his aid in the work of self-examination, in their private meditations, in their preparation for duty, for trial, and for death, they cannot fail to find him a profitable guide.

His *Commentary on 1 Peter* is his longest and his most finished work. It is not a *commentary* in the technical sense of the word ; but a series of *practical observations* embracing every clause in the Epistle. His other extant works are *Expositions of the Lord's Prayer*, the *Apostles' Creed*, and the *Ten Commandments* ; *Expository Lectures* on various parts of the Bible ; *Sermons* ; *Addresses* to the Students of the University ; and a few shorter pieces.

The selection before us is made with Mr. Cheever's usual taste and fidelity. As Leighton never wrote for effect, we can present to our readers no striking passages. We offer the following remarks from his *Commentary on 1 Peter*, "on the Duty of Serving God in our Own Peculiar Calling and Condition," as a fair specimen of his style of thought and language.

"Grace finds a way to exert itself in every estate where it exists, and regulates the soul according to the particular duties of that estate. Whether it find a man high or low, a master or a servant, it requires not a change of his station, but works a change on his heart, and teaches him how to live in it. The same spirit that makes a Christian master pious, and gentle, and prudent in commanding, makes a Christian servant faithful, and obsequious, and diligent in obeying. A skilful engraver makes you a statue indifferently of wood, or stone, or marble, as they are put into his hand ; so Grace forms a man to a Christian way of walking in any estate. There is a way for him in the meanest condition to glorify God, and to adorn the profession of religion ; no estate so low as to be shut out from that ; and a rightly informed and rightly affected conscience towards God, shows a man that way, and causes him to walk in it. As the astrologers say, that the same stars that made Cyrus to be chosen king amongst the armies of men when he came to be a man, made him to be chosen king amongst the shepherd's children when he was a child ; thus Grace will have its proper operation in every estate.

"In this men readily deceive themselves ; they can do any thing well in imagination, better than the real task that is in their hands. They presume that they could do God good ser-

vice in some place of command, who serve Him not, as becomes them, in that which is the easier, the place of obeying, wherein he hath set them. They think that if they had the ability and opportunities that some men have, they would do much more for religion, and for God, than they do; and yet they do nothing but spoil a far lower part than that which is their own, and is given them to obey and act aright in. But our folly and self-ignorance abuse us; it is not our part to choose what we should be, but to be what we are, to His glory who gives us to be such." pp. 183, 184.

The Memoir prefixed to this volume by Mr. Cheever shows a rich mind, a vivid imagination, great purity of moral taste, an enthusiastic admiration of virtue and holiness, and a devout spirit. But it has some very prominent faults, only two of which our limits will permit us to notice.

The first of these is the extravagant and bewildering use of figurative language. Of this the following is an instance.

"Leighton's writings are not, like many others (and even powerful minds), now a waste of sand, and now an oasis of exceeding beauty; they are all one perpetual variety of rich and solemn scenery, where you walk on in unconscious progress from one spot to another, now lost in the religious gloom and echoing walks of the forest, now emerging into the open light, which gleams upon thick golden furze and wild flowers, now watching the spire of a distant village, or the smoke rising through trees from a concealed hamlet, now listening to the roar of a waterfall, and now coming to an opening where you can see the ocean. Here we are ever in the land of Beulah. We are walking in the king's own gardens built for the entertainment of the pilgrims. It seems as if we were wandering in Eden, through a forest of spices; attended all the while by solemn warbling melodies, that rise and steal upon the ear as sacredly as if they were voices of praise from spirits dwelling in the flowers." p. xlii.

Now this is a beautiful description of just such a pilgrimage as an amateur pedestrian would rejoice to make. But we would challenge any one, who (to continue Mr. Cheever's figure) walks or wades through our good Archbishop's works, to carry this paragraph with him, and identify the *furze*, and the *steeple*, and the *smoke*, and the *roaring*, and the *spirits dwelling in the flowers*, which the fanciful compiler has discovered.

He thus describes Leighton's illustrations :

"His illustrations are inimitably beautiful, and he throws them off with surprising fertility. They give such clearness to the thought, at the same time admitting the rich light of a fine imagination to stream upon it, that what was before but an intellectual abstraction, receives, as it were, an instantaneous creation, and becomes a *thing* of sensible life and beauty ; as if one of the invisible spirits, passing by in the air, should on a sudden assume a bodily shape of glory to the eye. His figures detain and fix for the mind's inspection the subtle shades of thought, and finish and shape those timid, half-disclosed spiritual appearances, that else, as they come to the vision like birds of Paradise, would fly away as quickly. It is as if the restless clouds with all the evanescent beauty of their deepening and changing lines at sunset, should hear a voice, and remain for hours motionless and the same, in extreme stillness to the sight." pp. xlvi, xlvii.

This is fine, very fine ; but what does it all mean ? It would take one many minutes to conjure up a class or kind of figures which this description would suit, and as many hours to discern its applicability in any sense or degree to Leighton's style of illustration.

We are the more sorry that Mr. Cheever has fallen into this bombastic style of writing, because we do not conceive he needs it to conceal poverty of thought ; and because he has chosen a profession in which simplicity is the soul of eloquence, and has undertaken to dispense truths which are "when unadorned, adorned the most."

The other fault of this Memoir, which we proposed to mention, is the too free use of superlatives with regard to Leighton and his writings. Its author seems to suppose Leighton's sanctity unequalled, unapproached since the days of the Apostles. But in our opinion, he need not go out of our own State to find a Bishop equally venerable for Christian graces and virtues ; and we should lose our faith in the worth of intellectual advancement, did we believe that the present era of light and knowledge exhibits no one who can compare in point of holiness with an ornament of that *comparatively* unenlightened age. The encomiums which are lavished upon Leighton's writings in this Memoir would lead the reader to expect an union of the brightest fancy, the purest taste, the most profound research, the most energetic eloquence, with

that ardent piety which constitutes their chief characteristic ; and one cannot pass from Mr. Cheever to the selections given in his volume without experiencing very great disappointment.

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ART. III. — 1. *A Grammar of Elocution, containing the Principles of the Arts of Reading and Speaking, illustrated by Appropriate Exercises and Examples.* By JONATHAN BARBER, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London. New-Haven. A. H. Maltby. 1832. 12mo. pp. 346.

2. *A Practical Treatise on Gesture, chiefly Abstracted from Austin's Chironomia ; adapted to the Use of Students.* By JONATHAN BARBER, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London. Cambridge. Hilliard & Brown. 1831. 12mo. pp. 116.

MUCH, and we think in some degree not undeserved, blame has been laid upon the character of public speaking in this country, especially in our seminaries of learning, as exhibited in the performances of the pupils. Considerable attention has of late years been paid to remedying, or attempting to remedy, this, and it is believed not altogether without success. Among other means employed has been the use of works on Elocution of an elementary character. The old "Readers" and "Speakers," as they were called, have been thrown aside, and a new race of productions of higher pretensions and more accurately analytical character has succeeded to them. Among the most conspicuous of them is the first of the works named at the head of this article. Many of the ideas and principles contained in it, as the author avows, are drawn from an elaborate treatise on the "Philosophy of the Human Voice," by Dr. James Rush of Philadelphia ; and the labor of Dr. Barber has been, to give them a practical application, with such elucidations and illustrations, as should render the work an elementary guide to the future orators of our country.

The first fifty pages are devoted to the subject of Articulation, containing preliminary observations on the importance of distinctness and accuracy as the basis of good delivery,

and tables and explanations of the different elements of articulate sounds in the English language.

The preliminary remarks are just and forcible, and we recommend them to the serious attention of every one who, whether reading or speaking on any occasion whatsoever, desires to be listened to with either pleasure or profit. With regard to the elementary doctrines of articulation in detail, we are not so well satisfied. The author begins with taking for an example the word *man*, which he divides into its three elementary sounds of *m*, *a*, *n*, and undertakes to give each as a distinct sound. Now we have never seen a definition of a *consonant* which did not state, that it could not be sounded without the help of a *vowel*; and if Dr. Barber be able to sound *m* and *n*, or any other consonants except in conjunction, *actual conjunction*, with a vowel, every body hitherto must have been in the wrong; that they have been so, we do not feel inclined to admit. According to our ideas, the only *distinct* sounds in the language are those of the vowels, which are sent forth from the vocal organs of the larynx through the open mouth, the organs of which by slight movements, without any occlusion or bringing in contact of opposite parts, give them all the modification necessary for their easy and perfect utterance. When in uttering a vowel sound, opposite parts, either external or internal, of the mouth are at the same time brought in contact with each other, a peculiar modification of the vowel sound takes place, which modification is called a *consonant*, and varies according to the exact mode and force of the contact. *R* when pronounced by itself, that is, as *ar*, is the only consonant uttered without some such contact; the reason may be found in its expressing one of the sounds of *a*. This contact is not a sound but a peculiar sort of aspiration or inflexion; and therefore to utter the sounds of the consonants as distinct sounds we hold to be an impossibility, and directions for doing so, and descriptions of them, to be not only futile, but likely to endanger the formation of a habit of harsh utterance. The author observes with great good nature, that he never yet in his lectures "pronounced the vocal elements of the language without exciting the mirthful wonder of his audience." Not without reason we should think; especially since he compares the sound of *m*, as spoken by itself, to the lowing of an ox.

This elementary error in some degree runs through the explanations, and mars the doctrine, which in some respects with regard to the vowels contains matter worthy of attention. The whole is too much drawn out; since the really necessary rules for distinct and accurate articulation might be comprised in much less space. The introduction of a diagram to illustrate a vanishing sound, seems to us perfectly useless if a reader has any tolerable conception of the meaning of language.

After this, which may be considered as an introduction, the author enters upon the proper subject of Elocution, or the employment of all those various intonations, cadences, and pauses in the utterance of language, necessary for giving perfect expression to its import, and suited to render the utterance agreeable to the ear of the listener.

The subject is copiously treated under various heads, far too numerous to be particularly mentioned within the limits to which our remarks must be confined. In a number of these divisions we have noticed much pertinent and useful matter. As a whole, the treatise may not unjustly be spoken of as minute and profound, and with regard to the analysis and discrimination of the various modifications of sound, as existing in the natural expression of passions and emotions, it appears to us to be generally correct and philosophical.

These are its merits, and however paradoxical it may seem, they are likewise its defects. To illustrate our meaning, let the book be taken up and attentively perused by a scholar, who from practice and observation has gained a knowledge of the different modulations of the voice, as expressive of meaning, and as harmonious to the ear, and who has such a command of his own vocal organs, that he can employ these modulations at pleasure in his own enunciation. In repeating according to his own judgment the various passages of prose and poetry used by the author as illustrations, and comparing the various tones produced with the scales, &c., connected with these passages in the work, he will, we think, recognise their correctness, and if his ear be fine and musical, he will be able to follow the author into the niceties of his analysis; but without a musical ear, and perhaps we might say, some musical skill also, this last cannot well be done. Let an ordinary reader or speaker, however, one of moderate knowledge and abilities, such as the generality of



our young men at college, particularly those not musically gifted, take up the work and commence a diligent perusal and study of it, he will soon find himself bewildered among the numerous divisions of the subject, and inappreciable distinctions of sound and scales ; and, with the exception of such passages of general remark as have been already referred to, the farther he proceeds, the worse confounded will confusion become, till all is a perfect chaos in his mind. He will be lost in the mazes of the subject, resembling, to use a homely but not unapt comparison, "a chicken in a field of peas." In short, the very minuteness of detail with which the subject is treated, will prevent him from comprehending it. Yet it is for persons of whom this last supposition offers an example, that the work is intended, and, as a manual of instruction, we think that in this particular it must fail to effect its purpose.

It is true, that with the help of an accomplished instructor, who can give practical illustrations, some, even many, of these difficulties in the way of comprehension may be surmounted, and the pupil may acquire appropriate inflections and management of the voice ; but it will be by the ear, by observation and imitation, and not by the help of the definitions and scales and diagrams. He may be able to repeat all the definitions, and answer correctly all the questions in the book, but they will not advance him one tittle in the management of his own voice ; and such ability will only afford an instance of a truth too often overlooked, that learning is not knowledge, though they are much too often confounded. Attempting to form the intonations and modulations of the voice by means of scales and diagrams, is extremely apt to give a very evidently artificial, and therefore faulty, delivery ; the means may be far too readily traced in the result.

It may be asked, How then are the requisites of a good delivery to be obtained ? To answer this question at all fully would carry us far beyond the limits to which we must restrict ourselves on this subject. The only answer we can give must be a general one. To practice must be added the *imitation* of nature. This is the source of *oratorical* excellence ; an observation of the tones, the looks, and the gestures displayed under the influence of real passion or emotion, and an adoption of them according to the exigency of the case. Assistance may doubtless be rendered by well adapt-

ed works and treatises ; but they must be of a different character in several respects, from that of the work before us ; although there are parts in it of which we approve, such as many of the general observations or leading remarks in some of the divisions, and the section entitled " Analysis of Written Language." Yet the observation and imitation of nature, and the full understanding of the purport of what is read or spoken, must be the main things, seconded by an accurate and distinct articulation, which is indeed an all-important preliminary qualification. To this much of the labor of Demosthenes was directed, and imitation was to him, as it must be to others, the means of acquiring this. Some writer, we recollect not whom, speaking of the unwearied labors of the great orator on this point, observes with genuine Gallic unction, " that he did not disdain even to go to the dogs to learn by the imitation of them how to pronounce the letter R." If there be any truth in this, it may seem to illustrate our remark ; but we cannot help thinking there must be some mistake ; for we do not see how he could gain the proposed end, unless the dogs of ancient Greece spoke a language very different from the bow-wow-wow of the canine race of modern days.

The last hundred and fifty pages of the " Grammar of Elocution " are filled with exercises, divided as to time by bars, scored to mark the accents of each syllable, and with pauses or rests denoted by figures. This, as a whole, seems to us one of the most useful parts of the book, and with the assistance of the general remarks will be worth more to the learner than all the rest. The notation of these exercises we consider to be good, though in a few passages that we noticed, our ears and taste would have prompted some variation.

When we first took up the " Treatise on Gesture," which is abstracted mainly from Austin's *Chironomia*, and saw the forbidding display of symbolical apparatus and diagrams, and the figures of amputated feet and hands in all positions, we were seized with a sort of prejudice, good-natured indeed, but which even of this kind it is not well to cherish, as being not very favorable to candid examination. And when we looked further, and our eyes took in the long array of pictured men and women, in all the various attitudes of oratorical gesticulation, the *Chironomia* brought at once to our

recollection ~~the~~ *structor chironomon* of Juvenal, which for the benefit of our unclassical readers we shall present in the sufficiently faithful translation of Gifford :

"Lo! the spruce carver, to his task address,  
 Skips, like a harlequin, from place to place,  
 And waves his knife with pantomimic grace,  
 Till every dish be ranged, and every joint  
 Dissected, by just rules, from point to point.  
 Thou think'st this folly — 't is a vulgar thought —  
 To such perfection, now, is carving brought,  
 That different gestures, by our curious men  
 Are used for different dishes, hare and hen."

It may be thought profane to compare with each other the impression made upon the mind, and the excitement produced on the palate, through the eye ; but it will not be considered very far-fetched, when it is recollected that some of the greatest philosophers, critics, and orators of recent times have been among the most distinguished proficient in the refinements of the modern Epicurean school.

When we went beyond a mere cursory external gazing at the pages and illustrations of this book, which we exceedingly fear very few have done, we found many things worthy the attention of every public speaker. The more general directions for the position of the feet for the sake of the comfort and freedom of the speaker and a graceful appearance, are doubtless useful ; and many of the rules in regard to the movements of the arms, hands, and fingers are important ; and no less important are the enumeration and description of faults in the management of these parts of the body. The same is true in respect to a great part of the directions concerning the motions of the head and eyes, the body and limbs, and to the cautions given against excess in the use of gesture, and violence in the manner of using it. But these are things which this "Treatise" possesses in common with many other works of a similar kind, and might well enough have been annexed to the "Grammar of Elocution." It is to what is peculiar to this treatise, and to that of the author from which it is chiefly taken, that Dr. Barber must attach the chief importance.

Passing over what pertains to the positions of the feet which has more to do with theatrical exhibition, than with oratory as connected with the most important interests of society, — we proceed to the main subject, namely, the po-

sitions and motions of the arms and hands. The movements of the arms "simple and unforced," amount by arithmetical calculation to "one hundred and thirty-nine," as we are told; besides the varieties occasioned by "deflections from the exact line" prescribed. So that, as the author remarks, "This view of gesture, in the very outset of the system, shows how prolific it is." The movements of the hands and fingers are not, we should judge, by a rough guess, much less numerous than those of the arms; though the same permutations and combinations are not gone through with, for obtaining a similar result. Suppose then the different motions for the arms from the shoulder to the extremities of the hand, to be something less than three hundred; this is a pretty large alphabet of gesture, and it is little more than an alphabet according to the author's account.

"If the different classes of gestures of the hand are combined with the elevations and transverse positions of the arm, the result will be a very comprehensive system of gesture, capable of recording, for the most part distinctly and impressively, the sentiments of the public speaker, in the various circumstances in which he may be placed. The ELEMENTS are here placed before the student. The combinations must be left to his own taste and discretion. He will find, however, in the Illustrations, important aids in the prosecution of his design." p. 21.

The Illustrations here mentioned are not the figures which we have already referred to, representing the attitudes or certain states of gesture to the eye, which in the body of the work are described, the several descriptions being numbered to correspond with the figures; but they are certain select passages of poetry and prose to which symbolical letters are attached, indicating the gesture suited to particular words or phrases. This symbolical apparatus of letters is abundantly explained, first separately, then combined in sets, then by a "synoptical arrangement," and lastly by an alphabetical tabular arrangement. Besides this, each piece selected for illustration is followed by a "Glossary explanatory of the Symbolical Letters," and some "Analytical Observations."

We have thus endeavoured to give as far as possible, in so small a compass, an account of Dr. Barber's "*Treatise on Gesture*," called practical, but which will not be likely to be very thoroughly practised. It is not difficult to understand it, though it must require considerable exercise of

memory to retain it for the sake of use. When we speak of its being easily understood; we mean what is merely external and mechanical, which of itself every one will acknowledge is of no value. The value of gesture must consist in aiding or enforcing the expression of sentiment or emotion; and the prescribing of rules for adapting it to this end, must give considerable scope to imagination. The voice is the chief interpreter of inward feeling, expressed in natural language, aided too by the countenance, concerning which all rules are vain; and though the action may often be so suited to the word as to attract attention and increase the effect, yet we doubt whether any two natural orators, if we may so speak, will be found, who bear any striking resemblance to each other in this respect. So long as gesture is a mere practice of rules, it is impossible that the art should be disguised; and consequently in this state it has nothing to do with eloquence, — it is upon the same level with dancing or gymnastic exploits. They may all be useful in their effects, and gesture most of all, when art is forgotten. But in gesture it should be forgotten before it grows into habit. We have heard and seen public speakers, somewhat advanced in life, who never threw off the gesture of the schools, graceful it might be, but artificial and unexpressive. And we have seen awkward men, too, who never moved an arm, a hand, or finger by rule, who were full of energy and effect in their action. Lest, however, we should be thought too latitudinarian in our notions, we freely acknowledge that it is the business of rules and teaching to correct every thing awkward, as far as possible, and to point out what is graceful. But the danger to be avoided, is that of teaching too much, and too artificially; and this is the sum of our objections to Dr. Barber's "*Practical Treatise*"; though we are aware that his remarkable and well-known success in his vocation may be alleged as an unanswerable reply to our opinions thus honestly expressed.

- ART. IV.—1. *An Introduction to English Grammar, on an Analytical Plan, adapted to the Use of Students in Colleges and the Higher Classes in Schools and Academies.* By SAMUEL WEBBER, A. M., M. D. Cambridge. Hilliard & Brown. 1832. 12mo. pp. 116.
2. *A New Grammar of the English Language.* New York. Collins & Hannay. 1831. 12mo. pp. 78.

DR. WEBBER in his "English Grammar," while he adheres to a plan much more analytical than that of any other grammar of our language which has come to our knowledge, retains the common nomenclature in the division of words, and treats them in such a way as to combine a regard to classification and practical use, with philosophical analysis. In doing this he has been necessarily deprived of the privilege of which most of his predecessors, since the time of Lowth, have freely availed themselves. They have followed in the track of that great philologist, occasionally filling up some of his outlines, and deviating here and there in matters of fashion, rather than of substantial import; while they have actually fallen behind him in some of the more philosophical parts of his "Introduction to English Grammar." Dr. Webber's Grammar, therefore, is in its general appearance a new work. He has abandoned altogether the hackneyed and inadequate set of definitions which have heretofore been the common stock of grammarians, as if by joint inheritance, and has resorted to explanations which, if they sometimes require too much study for the idle and inexperienced, always reward examination by imparting a well-defined meaning, resulting from thorough induction.

Such are the general character and merits of this work, both in respect to its plan and execution. That part which treats of the letters, of the vowel sounds, and the combinations of letters, as affecting their sounds, is marked by a great degree of discrimination in most particulars, but is not always accompanied with sufficient fulness of illustration. The Etymological part we shall pass over with a very few cursory remarks, till we come to the verb. In some instances, the author's phraseology, though logically exact, might be somewhat simplified; as for example, in the account of the derivation of words, contained in the first paragraph

upon Etymology. In denying to the substantive an objective case, he seems to us to have been too fastidious. Case is not merely a change of form which shows the relation of a noun to other words, but also, and more philosophically, the relation itself. But as in English we have no changes of form to express the different relations, except that which denotes possession, it would make our syntax very complex and difficult, to apply rules to these relations, and to denominate them by all the terms which are used where inflexion is most extended. Our grammarians, therefore, have not gone beyond a third case called the Objective, which they have generally introduced, and not without good reasons; for pronouns have this case in a distinct form. Besides it appears a little awkward when the author comes to the Syntax, to say, as he does very properly for the sake of consistency, — "Every active verb has some noun, pronoun, or equivalent expression, as its object; the pronoun always in the objective case." And again, — "Prepositions require after them a noun, pronoun, or equivalent expression, as an object, the pronoun in the objective case." It is for these reasons that we think the author too fastidious in making this innovation. In other respects we followed him with great satisfaction till we came to the verb, the *crux grammaticorum*, and the occasion sometimes of angry conflicts. For strange as it may seem, that grave grammarians should ever be thus overtaken, yet we have stories in former times of their pulling each other by the beard for alleged pertinacity; and in one instance, of the total loss of this excrement, long, full, and flowing, as a forfeit of a wager regarding the termination of a tense. And in times not long passed, John Horne Tooke turned up his nose at all the grammarians for their stupidity in analysing this part of speech; and quitting them with a sneer, abruptly closed his book, and left his reader as much in the dark as before.

If Dr. Webber fails to satisfy us in all respects concerning this intricate part of grammar, it is not to be wondered at. He has certainly treated it with great acuteness, and will doubtless make many skeptics upon some points which were before considered as settled; and if in some respects we have more faith than he in old grammatical usages, we feel confident that our differences will not kindle a polemic heat which shall lead to such serious issues as those to which we have adverted.

Dr. Webber's principal innovation respecting the verb is of a mixed kind, affecting the distribution of the Tenses, and indirectly the import of the Modes. At the close of his remarks upon the modes, in which there is nothing very peculiar, he thus mingles them with the tenses, upon which he is about to speak :

“ Part of the general notion of time is conveyed by the modes themselves ; thus, the Indicative, pointing out or declaring an action as a fact, must represent it either as present or past ; the Potential, declaring the power, will, intention, obligation, or necessity to act, which are prior to the action itself, must be essentially future ; the Subjunctive, expressing the action as a thing of doubt or contingency, also implies futurity ; as does likewise the Imperative, because a command, exhortation, or request to do a thing, supposes its performance to be yet to come.” p. 37.

Whatever is implied concerning time in the different modes must, we apprehend, to speak logically, be considered as an accident, and not as the substance. There are two ways in which the whole subject of mode and time may be treated ; first, philosophically without regard to any particular language ; and secondly, in a practical way, having regard only to some one language. In a philosophical view there is no well-ascertained limitation in the number of modes or tenses. Practically regarded, the most convenient method is that which we find in the Greek and Latin, where the modes and tenses are fixed by inflexion. But so fickle is language that perfect consistency could not be obtained in either. Neither in Greek nor in Latin are there inflexions through all the modes and tenses of the passive voice corresponding to the active, which last gives laws upon the subject ; and the passive is obliged to unite with auxiliary forces to execute them. But Dr. Webber's thesis that “ the Indicative mode, pointing out or declaring an action as a fact, must represent it either as present or past,” we do not think can be sustained either by philosophical or by practical principles of grammar. In saying this, however, we do not feel obliged to adopt the gloss or inference of his own which he makes use of, namely — “ as a fact ” — which words are not found in the common definition of the Indicative, and, as we think, do not belong to it. The Indicative affirms or asks a question. The more restricted definition of Dr. Webber seems to be adapted to his theory,



and in some sort to prejudice the very case in dispute ; which we hold to be extra-judicial, and also unwise, since he has pleaded his cause most ably, endeavoured to sustain it by applying the most ingenious and powerful arguments that it admits, and should therefore have left it to stand or fall by the force of truth and public opinion.

Let us look into the case. *Should* and *would* appear, claiming to be the legitimate issue of *shall* and *will*, and alleging against certain lawless persons called grammarians, that their parents have been forcibly removed from them to a distant region, and have been compelled to serve for all futurity, a strange master, against their volition, sense of duty, and innate consciousness of power. Such is the allegation ; and the question arising thereon is argued with great ability by Dr. Webber, who maintains that *shall* and *will* should be restored to their home, and to their lawful connexions, and reinstated in all their privileges and immunities.

The distribution of Modes and Tenses in conformity to his view of the import of *shall* and *will*, which he transfers from the Future Indicative to the Potential, Dr. Webber exhibits thus. INDICATIVE MODE, with four Tenses, *Present*, *Imperfect*, *Perfect*, and *Pluperfect*. — POTENTIAL (or FUTURE MODE) with a *Present Tense*, (or *First Future* with *shall* and *will*), *Imperfect Tense* (or *1st Conditional*), *Perfect Tense* (or *2d Future* with *shall* and *will*), *Pluperfect Tense* (or *2d Conditional*.) The *Subjunctive* corresponds in its tenses to the Indicative. In the Imperative, which he rightly confines to the second person, a second tense is added : as, "Have thou, or do thou have finished."

This account of the modes and tenses of the regular verb, shows how the author has disposed of those troublesome words *shall* and *will*, so as to preserve their signification of futurity in common with *may* and *can*, differing only in degree or obviousness ; while the mode is made paramount, including with its potential signification that also of futurity. To bring this subject as near as possible to a single point, it seems to us that Dr. Webber dissents from other English grammarians by insisting upon the primary signification of *shall* and *will*, as denoting power, obligation, or volition ; these he takes to be the leading significations, and that of futurity as secondary or introduced by implication. On the contrary, those grammarians who have used the same words

as auxiliaries in forming a future tense, have had regard merely to their conventional use; and if this, by whatever means, has gained the ascendancy, it is in vain to contend against it. This last view of the case seems to us to be the true one, though not wholly free from difficulties. In the most natural enunciation of the phrases, "I shall finish, you or he will finish, — we shall finish, you or they will finish," futurity and nothing but futurity is obviously expressed, and nothing more of power, intention, or obligation is implied, than such as belongs to future time in the nature of things, and to the words in all languages that express it. If we reverse the *shall* and *will*, it must be confessed that the case is greatly changed, particularly in the second and third persons, so that we should be willing to compromise with our author, by giving up *shall* in these persons, if we knew what to do with it, a matter of some doubt; for the Imperative might lay as strong a claim to it as the Potential. The imperative is so nearly allied to the future, that some of the old grammarians, Sanctius and others, and among the modern, Gebelin, discarded it altogether as a mode, and referred it to the Future Indicative. And no reader of Latin can have failed to perceive that the Future Indicative, and the Present Subjunctive, where a potential signification is often required, run into each other, if we may so speak, continually. But we cannot go so far even as we feel inclined into this metaphysical discussion, and therefore must close our remarks with a few words upon the Syntax in the Grammar of which we are speaking.

This Syntax, according to our taste and knowledge of the subject, surpasses that of any of the grammars in common use. The rules are expressed with great care, and generally with all the clearness which the subject admits. Several anomalous phrases and constructions, which, for want of rules, the teacher has heretofore been accustomed to regard and to speak of as inexplicable idioms, or at best to explain with much circumlocution, are here classed and reduced to specific rules. Indeed, we think the plan and execution of the Syntax very judicious and successful. The rules are all preceded by an exact and sufficiently copious analysis of the expressions to which they apply, from which they flow naturally and intelligibly.

Whatever objections, or prejudices it may be, lie against

this Grammar in some particulars, yet these are so much overbalanced by its general excellence, that we cannot but regard it as a great improvement; and if it should not in its present form take the place of grammars now in use among those for whom it is particularly intended, it may be used as an important help to enable them to understand many things which they have before repeated with an exceedingly vague and imperfect conception of their meaning.

The author of the "New Grammar," so called, which is named after Dr. Webber's, at the head of this article, claims careful attention to that part of his book which treats of the Verb. He merges the Subjunctive Mode in the Indicative; and gives two tenses each to the Potential and Conditional Modes. What is commonly called the Perfect Tense — *I have loved* — is termed, in this Grammar, *Present Past*, a term more exceptionable than that of Lowth, who calls it, in his Synopsis of Tenses, *Present Perfect*. The term *Perfect* cannot, we think, be changed for the better. This Tense, in English, expresses past time terminating in the present.

In the conjugation of the verb *To Be* we were somewhat startled with the plural form given to the Past Tense (first form) as it is called, namely, — *we was, you was, they was*. *You was*, has been defended at least by one grammarian within our previous knowledge, without good reasons, as we think; but this is the first time we have seen any indication that this vulgarism is extending to the other persons. And yet there is no reason why it should not, except that this form in the second person has become somewhat familiar to our ears.

The unknown author gives evidence of considerable philological research both in Etymology and Syntax, to which parts of grammar his book is confined.

ART. V. — 1. *Report of the Royal Academy of Medicine to the Minister of the Interior, upon the Cholera Morbus*. Published by Order of the French Government. Translated from the French, by JOHN W. STERLING, M. D., &c. New York. Samuel Wood & Sons. 1832. 8vo. pp. 234.

2. *A Medical and Topographical History of the Cholera Morbus, including the Mode of Prevention and Treat-*

ment. By SCOUTTETTEN, Adjunct Professor at the School of Medicine at Strasburg, &c. *With a Report read at the Royal Academy of Medicine, at Paris, September 17, 1831.* Translated from the French, by A. SIDNEY DOANE, A. M., M. D. Boston. Carter & Hendee. 1832. 8vo. pp. 100.

3. *A Catechism of Facts, or Plain and Simple Rules respecting the Nature, Treatment, and Prevention of Cholera.* By A. B. GRANVILLE, M. D., F. R. S., &c. Philadelphia. E. L. Carey & A. Hart. 1832. 12mo. pp. 108.

THE first and second of the works at the head of this article, are translations from the French by physicians resident at New York. Both translations are well made, and their typographical execution reminds us of the English medical books, which are usually printed in a style of elegance, that unprofessional readers might think altogether too good for them. We are glad to see this, for the practice of publishing ordinary editions of medical works has been too common in this country. The third is a small work of Dr. Granville of London, a well-known writer on contagion.

The subject has become one of general interest, and as all the above works are singularly free from a technical character, they appear not unfit subjects of notice in this Review.

The first work is a Report read before the Royal Academy of Medicine on the 26th and 30th of July, 1831. It was made by a committee of twelve of the Academy, M. Keraudren, President, appointed at the instance of the Minister of the Interior. It may be considered, therefore, as giving us the opinions held by the most distinguished of the French medical men on the now engrossing subject of the Cholera Morbus (as by a singular pleonasm the pestilence is called), which, having ravaged almost the whole of Asia, has invaded Europe, and is now on the opposite shores of the Atlantic, threatening our own country.

This work does not pretend to give the personal experience of its authors, but is composed from documents, often of course imperfect and unsatisfactory. Its object is to collate, and present in one view, all that its authors by laborious research could learn on the subject referred to

them. It seems to us an admirable production, written with remarkable candor and sound judgment, drawing largely from the reports and treatises of the British India physicians and surgeons. These men have studied the disease for years, under the greatest variety of circumstances, and it is to them rather than to the Russian and other European physicians, that we must look for the best account of it.

The second work professes to have the same object ; to be "a complete but concise history of the Cholera Morbus." Affixed is a chart of the places where it has occurred, and its course and different directions are marked by a red line. This author also writes from data furnished by others, but he seems to have sought them with less perseverance, and examined them with less accuracy. He decides, off-hand, questions involved in much mystery. His assertions are often too positive, and his inferences sometimes illogical.

Dr. Granville is a partisan, but his work appears to us to contain many important facts and sound views.

As respects the history and nature of the disease, the three works in the main agree ; but they differ as to the mode of its propagation.

Following the order of the first of these works we shall give a short sketch of the facts known respecting Cholera. The earliest mention of this disease is by Hippocrates 400 years B. C., and it has been admirably described by Aretæus of Cappadocia. "The perspicuous, concise, accurate, and complete symptomatology which this author, who wrote at the beginning of the fifth century, has recorded, compared even with recent descriptions, or those of the present day, scarcely leaves any thing to be desired by the most fastidious individual." This disease, the characters of which are distinct and constant, has been frequently observed in all ages, and in every country, and there are few physicians who have not met with isolated cases of it. Cases thus occurring are said to be *sporadic*. It not unfrequently has assumed an *epidemic* form. Thus it was described by Hippocrates, and observed by Sydenham in London, in 1669 and 1676, who says, "It appears at the close of summer, or the beginning of autumn, as certainly as swallows in the spring, or cuckoos about the dog-days." In this form it has been noticed also in France at different epochs. The soil and climate of India have seemed peculiarly adapted to the developement of this dis-

ease, which almost constantly prevails there in its severest forms. Cholera is not a new disease therefore, but one which has prevailed in all countries from time immemorial, sometimes sporadically and sometimes epidemically. Hitherto, however, it has been a disease of warm seasons and warm countries, arising from causes more or less obvious, and ceasing on their disappearance. It is only within a few years that it has been known as a wide-spreading and devastating pestilence, depending on occult causes, slightly modified perhaps, but never controlled by the circumstances which have hitherto influenced it. It has become, therefore, a new subject of investigation, interesting not to the philosopher only, but deeply so to the philanthropist.

The first object of inquiry in the Report is, how far the present epidemic Cholera agrees with the disease which has so long been known by that name in Europe. In the first place, is quoted the description before mentioned by Aretæus (who wrote in the fifth century), which is found in all respects to tally with that of the physicians of British India, Prussia, and Poland, as it does with the account of Sydenham, in 1669, and with that of many intervening authors. The symptoms of the disease are such as no one who has once seen them can mistake. They differ in degree, but not in their nature; even the spasms from which the India Cholera takes its name, have always been observed to appertain to it. It has always been a severe disease, not seldom fatal in twenty-four hours; and the same obscurity which still hangs over its primary seat, is particularly mentioned by Celsus. The Report then concludes that the Cholera of the ancients, that of India, of Russia, and of Poland are identical as regards the phenomena. Dr. Granville shows very satisfactorily the truth of this opinion, and thinks with justice that much of the alarm which has prevailed, has arisen from the idea that it was a foreign and hitherto unknown disease which was so rapidly advancing.

We pass over the consideration of the treatment of the disease, and come to its medical and geographical history. The name of Spasmodic Cholera was first given to it by Curtis, an English naval surgeon, who first saw the disease on board a ship, off Trincomale in the island of Ceylon, in 1782. "The disease," he says, "was one much dreaded there, and called in the country 'Mort de Chien.'" His first

five cases were fatal in a few hours. In another place he adds, "Since my return to Europe I have had occasion to see many cases of the disease called in India, *Mort de Chien*, similar in all respects to those we had in Trincomale, only that they were much milder, and attended with much less depression of the *vires naturæ*."

The disease did not attract much notice, for it did not prevail very extensively until the year 1817, to which time, by many, particularly the advocates of contagion, is the origin of a new form of Cholera referred.

In August of that year, it was observed at Jessore, about a hundred miles from Calcutta. Spreading from village to village it reached Calcutta early in September. Thence with terrible ravages it crossed the peninsula, and arrived at Bombay in September, 1818. At the same time it was making like progress towards the south along the Coromandel coast, whence it crossed to Ceylon. It visited most of the islands of the Indian Archipelago in the course of the next six years, and finally entered China and reigned at Peking from 1821 to 1823. At a later period it was observed in Mauritius and the Isle of Bourbon. Bombay was its western limit until the year 1821. In that year it appeared at Muscat in Arabia, at the mouth of the Persian gulf. Thence it passed on the one hand to Bassora, and up the Tigris and Euphrates. On the other hand it crossed the gulf to Bushsheer and entered Persia in 1821. Here and in Syria also, it was somewhat checked by the cold of this winter, but it broke out again in the Spring. In 1823 it ravaged several cities on the Asiatic coast of the Mediterranean, and appeared on the borders of the Caspian Sea and at Astracan, at which place between September 22d and October 9th it destroyed a hundred and forty-four individuals, about two-thirds of those attacked. It ceased in the winter here and in Syria. For seven years it seemed to have reached its western limits.

Meanwhile it was extending from the north of China through Mongolia, and in 1826 was on the borders of Siberia. In 1829 it appeared in Orenburg, a healthy city between two chains of the Ural mountains, in the fifty-first degree of north latitude. In July, 1830, it made its second appearance in Astracan, whence it spread in a northerly direction to Moscow, where it arrived in September or October, and

westward to the shores of the Sea of Azof; thence along the border of the Black Sea to the mouths of the Danube. Ascending this river it visited Hungary and Austria in 1831. Meantime it extended from Moscow to St. Petersburg, thence to the principal ports upon the Baltic. Following the train of the Russian army, it was felt in almost every city in Poland. France and Italy have as yet escaped, but it has gone from Holland to Great Britain, where it first appeared in Sunderland. While we are writing we receive confirmed accounts of more than seventy cases in London, the majority of which have been fatal. There have been in all Great Britain more than 5000 cases during the winter months, and the mortality has been about one-third.

Having thus rapidly traced the progress of the Cholera, we would observe before quitting the subject, that it has been more fatal among the poor, the squalid, the ill-fed, and the intemperate, than among those who were in circumstances more favorable for the preservation of a healthful state of body. In India the number of deaths bore a very great proportion to the number attacked. In the close apartments and overgrown families of Russia, where indulgence in intoxication is the vice of the noble and the peasant, and in Poland, whose inhabitants were suffering at the same time from the horrors and privations of a disastrous war, the mortality was very great. In Syria, on the contrary, which is one of the finest countries in the world, the mortality in proportion to the number attacked was very small; in some cities less than one-sixth. Its spread was not very extensive and its continuance short.

The French writers seem to anticipate, and not without just cause, that if the Cholera enters their territory, the number of victims will not be large.

The next subject is the mode of propagation or transmission. This subject is an important one, and involved in much mystery. Before entering upon it, there are two terms it is necessary to define. These are *contagion* and *infection*.

The first is defined by M. Scoutteten as "the transmission of a disease from one to another by direct or indirect contact." Its agent, he says, is *virus*, and the air is never the medium of the transmission of contagious diseases.

"Infection is the action produced on our system by deleterious particles existing in the air." These are commonly



called *miasms*, which may have their origin from marshes, from the human body, or from vegetable or animal matter in a state of decomposition.

We are willing to admit the above definition of contagion with this addition, "or through the medium of the air, by emanations from the human body in a state of disease." The small-pox, which M. Scouttetten gives as an example of a contagious disease, does not require contact direct or indirect for its reproduction, since this does occur where there has been no communication but through the medium of the air, and must therefore depend on miasm, generated by the person of the sick. Infection differs from contagion in being a more general term, including not only the production of disease, by miasms from the human body, but also by miasms from animal and vegetable decomposition.

M. Scouttetten says, Cholera is not contagious, but infectious, and admits that it is propagated by emanations from choleric patients. He disputes with the contagionist about words only, assenting to all the statements commonly urged in favor of their doctrine. Not so Dr. Granville, who denies *in toto* that Cholera has the power of reproducing itself, and defends his position with much ability. M. Keraudren and his coadjutors think that Cholera is propagated in the epidemic method, which implies some occult cause, coëxtensive in prevalence with the disease itself, and of course having its origin in something common to all the localities which it visits. This we can suppose the atmosphere only to be. We have a familiar example of one, in the common catarrhal fever, usually called influenza, from which we have suffered this very season, in common with many portions of our own country, and of Europe.

At the same time it is admitted by the Report that there are some statements that cannot easily be set aside, which go to prove that Cholera is sometimes transmitted from the person of the sick by miasm; in other words, that under some circumstances favorable for the developement of the disease, it may become contagious. This seems certainly to be the case, and while we express our coincidence in opinion with M. Keraudren, we feel obliged to say, that it is almost impossible at this distance from the theatre of observation to come to a fixed opinion. In the mean time we must affirm, that we do not believe that the fear of contagion need deter

any one from rendering to the choleric patients all the offices of duty or affection.

We leave this subject to say a few words on the proper measures for prevention. These to be sure must depend on the mode in which the disease is transmitted ; and as long as this is unsettled, they must be so too. There are in the French Report, however, some general remarks on this head which are so just that we quote them at length, though we cannot commend the style of the translator.

“ In epidemics similar to the one under consideration, the disease itself is perhaps not the most formidable scourge. The moral effect exerted upon the inhabitants, and its dreadful consequences, are not less to be apprehended. If we restrict commercial relations too rigorously by quarantines ; if we drive back populations upon themselves by means of military cordons ; if we agglomerate the sick in lazarettos we will [shall] precipitate the dreadful event, augment the misery, multiply the elements of production and the causes of disease, and create new hot-beds of choleric emanations ; and those measures employed, in all the good faith of *non-savoir*, in order to preserve nations from the disease, would on the contrary have a direct tendency to produce, propagate, and aggravate it. In the numerous epidemics of Cholera which we had occasion to meditate upon, both in Asia and in Europe, patients placed in salubrious situations are visited, touched, moved, changed, dressed, and carefully attended, yet do not communicate the Cholera : physicians proceed to the examination of the bodies after death, dwelling long and minutely in their investigations, yet they have not contracted the disease. Numerous experiments have been made with the view of shedding light upon the manner in which the disease is transmitted ; one has inoculated himself, has even injected into his veins the blood of individuals actually seized and even dying with the Cholera ; some have laid [lain] down in the same beds with choleric and enveloped themselves in the clothes which these patients have just quitted, and others again have gone close to them to inhale their dying breath, yet always without serious consequences.

“ Far be from us, however, the rash thought of proscribing useful precautions, and condemning prudent measures. On the contrary, these useful precautions, we call for them, we plead for them with all our energy ; but for the interest of commerce and society, we desire that the endeavour should be to keep these precautions and measures within just limits ; we particularly desire that they should be applied with discretion. Directed by profound knowledge, and especially by the light

of experience, they will profit nations without being a burden to them. To individual calamities, to the eventful misfortune of disease, they would not add the universal calamities, the infallible misfortune of poverty, a scourge more formidable still than the Cholera." pp. 190, 191.

It is too common to speak of sanatory laws and quarantine regulations, as if they could do no harm even should they be of no use; this is certainly a very mistaken notion, and cannot be too strongly opposed. We have but to reflect on the immense number of persons thrown out of employment, by the restrictions upon a single branch of trade or commerce, to see that the want these must produce will go far to balance all the good that might possibly be expected from them. They prepare the way for the disease by placing hundreds and thousands in the very situation in which they are the least able to resist its attack. And what have sanatory laws done for any of the countries in which they have been adopted? "The district of Caen, from the first indications of the disease in the government of Orenburg, adopted the most particular and severe precautions against its propagation. Punishment of death was pronounced against every infraction of the sanatory laws; yet this district, notwithstanding, has been ravaged by the disease."

Dr. Granville says, it is "a fact, that neither Austria nor Russia has been able to keep off from its dominions this supposed intruder and traveller, although they employed for that purpose, with augmented vigor and severity, the very quarantine laws which have all along preserved them from any invasion of the plague, — a disease acknowledged on all hands, and by the *choleric* contagionists as well as others, to be superlatively contagious, infinitely superior in that respect to Cholera."

Much may be done in the way of personal precaution. A strict observance of the rules of health, will avail much to him who understands and follows them. General instructions on this head are often given, and are found in all the works before us. But as what is right and wholesome for one is not so for another, we should condemn all such attempts to regulate the mode of living of a whole community at the approach, or during the prevalence, of a pestilence.

One thing we have to observe upon, however, in the instructions we have generally met with, that they all seem to

presume the body to be in a state of comparative debility at such times, and all recommend "a little wine for the stomach's sake," and a good deal of animal food to fortify the system against the invader. This may be right, but not for all; and we will only oppose to it the experience of Dr. Rush, in his interesting Narrative of his state of body and mind during the prevalence of the Yellow Fever in Philadelphia, in 1793. He says, that he restricted himself to a moderate vegetable diet, leaving off the use of wine entirely, and found the activity of his mind and body wonderfully augmented. This Narrative we recommend to our readers, professional or otherwise, as giving an admirable lesson of the duty of a man and a physician in times when the strongest characters and the stoutest hearts are in danger of being wanting to themselves and to humanity.

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ART. VI.—*Elements of Technology, taken chiefly from a Course of Lectures delivered at Cambridge, on the Application of the Sciences to the Useful Arts.* Now published for the Use of Seminaries and Students. By JACOB BIGELOW, M. D., Professor of Materia Medica, and late Rumford Professor in Harvard University, Member of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, &c. Second Edition, with Additions. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins.. 1831. 8vo. pp. 521.

DR. BIGELOW'S "Elements of Technology" ranks high among the number of good scientific works to which our country has given birth. It is the work of one perfectly acquainted with the subjects upon which he writes. It is evidently no hasty compilation, but the result of extensive and accurate study. Its arrangement of topics is philosophical; its style neat and agreeable. It is as pleasant as it is rare, to find such thorough knowledge, united with such unpretending modesty, as this book every where displays.

This work is admirably adapted to the purpose specified upon its title-page, "the use of seminaries and students." It should be introduced, as a text-book, into every college and high school. Too many young men enter into active life, profoundly ignorant of many very common and simple things. This want of information, which is made so apparent

when they mingle with practical men, often is, as it should be, a source of mortification. They will find in this "Technology," the means of relieving themselves from their ignorance and its unpleasant consequences.

But this book should not be confined to colleges and students. It contains a rich mass of useful and entertaining knowledge, of knowledge important to every one, knowledge daily wanted, and daily found wanting. It is surprising to see the very general deficiency, among people otherwise well informed, of an acquaintance with the principles and the processes of the useful and the fine arts. How few understand the construction of a watch! How many know not the difference between the mode of engraving on copper and on wood! We have seen intelligent people, who supposed that the ornamental cutting of glass was done with the diamond. This is discreditable. We should know something of the arts, the products of which we are hourly using. The herb of China is not the less fragrant, because we know how the porcelain which contains it is manufactured; a fine painting is not the less beautiful, because we know the manner of preparing and mixing colors; a silk or a calico garment is not the less becoming, because the wearer understands the mode of weaving the one and of printing the other.

Besides that it is a delightful book to read, Bigelow's "Technology" is made, by a full Index, a very convenient book for reference. Not one of its least excellences is, that it gives at the end of each chapter, a list of the best writers on the subjects treated in it; thus marking out to those who would study more closely the application of science to art, a full and well selected course of reading.

This second edition is increased by the addition of about fourteen pages of new matter, partly incorporated in the work, partly given in a short Appendix. There are a few errors of the press on its handsome pages. We should hardly mention this if it were not to show how the addition of a single letter may destroy the sense, and perhaps puzzle the reader; as on page 35:—India rubber "is insoluble in water and in alcohol; but dissolves in *either*."

- ART. VII. — 1. *Oration delivered before the Legislature of Massachusetts, at their Request, on the Hundredth Anniversary of the Birth of George Washington.* By FRANCIS C. GRAY. Boston. 1832. 8vo. pp. 77.
2. *An Oration delivered in Newburyport, February, 22, 1832 : at the Centennial Celebration of the Birth-day of Washington.* By THOMAS B. FOX. Newburyport. E. B. & E. L. White. 1832. 8vo. pp. 22.

THE enthusiasm with which the hundredth anniversary of the birth of Washington was celebrated throughout our country is in itself a grateful subject of contemplation to a patriotic mind. It proves that the feeling with which we view the character of him who was emphatically the Father of his country, is something far different from the admiration we give to any other name in history however illustrious. It partakes of the fervor of personal attachment. Every man thinks of Washington as he would of some intimate friend, from whom he had received incalculable favors, and whom death had torn from his arms, but only stamped his image more deeply upon his heart. Though most of the generation who knew him face to face have passed away, yet the events of his life have a vivid distinctness to those who have learned them at second hand ; partly because they were in themselves so remarkable, and partly because their effects are so abiding.

In another point of view the strong feeling shown on that occasion is highly gratifying. Quintilian remarks, that an admiration of Cicero is in itself a proof of good taste ; so it seems to us that an universal, deep, and ardent admiration of the character of Washington is, alone, an evidence that the body politic is sound at the heart, whatever indications of disease there may be at the surface. We cannot but think that so long as the American people agree in their reverence for the man to whom, under Heaven, we are most indebted for our present political blessings, however intemperate the language used and menacing the attitude assumed by any portion of the country, that no State will in a rash moment, so far depart from the principles acted upon during his life and with much affectionate earnestness urged upon us in his "Farewell Address," as to dismember the Union, and snap that

golden chain of fellowship which has hitherto bound us together into so graceful a fabric. We think that some public demonstrations should be shown to the memory of Washington at least once in twenty-five or thirty years. It is important, that every generation should be thus led to meditate upon his wonderful character, that the gifted in the land should be called to portray it in the most lively colors, and to show how the lapse of time enhances its value as a model for imitation, and how the flight of centuries extends and magnifies the blessings which he was the means of first creating. It is but one step from admiration to imitation. Plato says, that if we could behold the sensible form of virtue, we should be so enamoured of her as to forget every thing else ; and certainly the annals of profane history present no example which approximates nearer to perfect excellence, than that displayed in the life of George Washington.

The Oration by Mr. Gray is worthy of the occasion which called it forth and of the author's reputation. We do not pretend to give an abstract of it, because of all productions an oration can least bear to be thus anatomized. The distinguishing characteristics of Washington are presented to our view in language of great simplicity and beauty, and with an animation and eloquence which nothing but a sincere admiration of his subject could communicate. In one respect, he has been very successful ; in illustrating the traits of his character by the prominent actions of his life. In doing this, he has not wearied us by the repetition of a thrice-told tale, but has contrived to give an air of novelty to the events themselves by the application he makes of them. By thus connecting principles with conduct, we are thoroughly impressed with the value of the former, and remember the latter more distinctly. Mr. Gray has not confined himself to the life and character of Washington alone, but occasionally is led aside to the consideration of subjects of kindred interest, connected with the growth and prospects of our country, and the peculiar nature and operation of our institutions. That he has digressed rather too much is the only objection we could make to his Oration, and that is no objection to it as a production to be read. But it must be considered as a blemish when we recollect that it was written for the purpose of being delivered. It is generally observable that our orators do not seem to recollect when they ascend the pulpit,

that there is a point beyond which the most dazzling eloquence will not carry the patient attention of an audience. The incidental topics, however, which Mr. Gray treats, are such as are naturally suggested by the subject, and are handled in a very interesting manner. The remarks on the representative system, beginning on the fifty-third page, are very excellent and striking.

We have not room to introduce any portions of Mr. Gray's Oration of sufficient length to illustrate the purity of taste and manly simplicity of style, with which the whole is written ; qualities alike worthy to be recorded, and to be imitated on similar occasions.

Mr. Fox's Oration is a beautiful performance, full of that honest glow and fervor of feeling which the contemplation of such a character as that of Washington cannot fail of producing in the mind of a young man. He does not attempt any sketch of his life, nor any minute enumeration of all his qualities, but selects and dwells upon those peculiar traits which give him his individuality and distinguish him from the common herd of great men, so called. He shows the foundations of his greatness to be laid in unfaltering principle, in self-government and self-knowledge, in consistency, in firmness, and in that deep religious confidence, which made him feel, when his enemies seemed about to crush him at once, the sentiment expressed by Lord Burleigh, when he heard of the mighty preparations made by the Spaniards to invade England: "They shall do no more than God will suffer them." Thus, his memorable actions were not the spasmodic efforts of a mind in a state of preternatural excitement, but the simple and necessary results of its ordinary workings. In Lord Bacon's sense of the word, he was thrice-great ; for he was born great, he achieved greatness, and he had greatness thrust upon him. From the consideration of the character of Washington, Mr. Fox passes, by a natural transition, to the quality which so remarkably distinguished him, his love of country ; and in a strain of great beauty and feeling dwells upon the duties of the true patriot and the necessity of his making his attachment to his native soil a principle and not merely an instinct. He enforces his remarks by an application to our own case, speaks of the peculiarities of our system, of some of the dangers that grow out of it, and the solemn responsibility which presses upon us all in conse-



quence. He treats of these subjects with the eloquence which comes from feeling, and which proves that he has that patriotism which he describes.

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ART. VIII. — *Report of Commissioners appointed under a Resolve of the Legislature of Massachusetts to superintend the Erection of a Lunatic Hospital at Worcester, and to Report a System of Discipline and Government for the same. Made January 4, 1832. Boston. Dutton & Wentworth. 8vo. pp. 32.*

THE Legislature of 1829 and 1830 appropriated the sum of thirty thousand dollars for the erection of a Lunatic Hospital of sufficient dimensions to accommodate a Superintendent and one hundred and twenty patients. We learn from the highly interesting Report before us, that the walls of an edifice for this purpose have been erected on a beautiful eminence in the village of Worcester, two hundred and fifty-six feet in length, consisting of a centre four stories high, seventy-six feet long, and forty feet wide, and two wings, on the same line, three stories high, and each ninety feet long and thirty-six wide. The building (of which a lithographic drawing is prefixed to the Report) is a huge pile of brick, without pretensions to architectural beauty, plain to a fault. From its commanding position, however, it is sure to arrest, if it does not charm, the eye of the traveller as he wends his way through that portion of the valley of the Blackstone, or traverses the handsome streets of the village in which it stands. Judging from the minute description given in the Report, as well as from some personal observation, we are satisfied that the arrangements of the interior, which are yet incomplete, will be extremely judicious, and well calculated to answer the purposes of the institution.

The laws of this Commonwealth authorize the commitment to prison of lunatics who in the opinion of two magistrates may be judged "dangerous to the peace or safety of the good people." Selectmen of towns are also required to provide for the safe keeping of insane persons who are paupers; and it is "the common practice of many towns to make private contracts with the keepers of jails and houses of correction to take such persons at a low rate and imprison

them in some of their unoccupied cells, where no person has been held responsible for their treatment, nor has the law delegated authority to any one to examine into their condition." There is still another class of lunatics in the community, comprising those who are not so furiously mad as to be liable to imprisonment. It does not appear from the Report what proportion of the whole number each of the three classes constitutes; but from returns made in 1829, from towns embracing less than half the population of the state, it was ascertained that one hundred and sixty-one lunatics were in actual confinement, making the number of more than *three hundred and twenty-two*, at the same rate, in the whole Commonwealth. It is said to be a "source of great complaint with the sheriffs and jailors that they must receive such persons, because they have no suitable accommodations for them."

Details of the condition in which imprisoned lunatics have been found in this State, are cited from a Report of the Prison Discipline Society, some of which are unutterably loathsome and revolting. In extenuation of the rigorous (not to say brutal) treatment of insane persons in jails and houses of correction, the Commissioners say, that the proper mode of treatment is of recent discovery. "A few individuals justly entitled to a conspicuous station among the benefactors of their race, have exploded the barbarous doctrine that cruelty is the proper antidote to madness, and have discovered that skill, mildness, and self-devotion to the welfare of the insane, are the only efficacious means for their restoration." p. 20. This principle has been carried into so successful operation at the Connecticut Retreat for the Insane, that a late Report of the Visitors shows a ratio of recoveries in the *old cases* equal to twenty-six per cent., and out of twenty-four recent cases, twenty-two recovered. The necessity and expediency of a different system of management on this subject in our Commonwealth, are thus strikingly shown. Were there no hope of recovering the victims of this dreadful malady, a change would still be demanded on the score of humanity. And when to this consideration is added the certainty of a restoration in a large majority of cases, under a mild and proper treatment, the propriety of establishing a hospital for this purpose, at almost any expense, cannot be doubted for a moment.

The actual expense of the insane population to the state for many years past, it is estimated, has averaged forty thousand dollars annually. As to the mode of defraying the charges of the Hospital, the Commissioners recommend that there be no alteration in the present law in relation to those confined in houses of correction, which requires, (as we find by a reference to the statute,) that the persons committed be kept at their own expense, if they have estate, otherwise at the charge of the persons or towns who would have been liable, had they not been committed. The only change recommended by the Commissioners is, that lunatics heretofore required to be imprisoned under the direction of the State, be hereafter committed to the Hospital at Worcester; and that those now so confined be removed to the Hospital as soon as it is ready for their reception. They also recommend that the insane poor be allowed the benefit of the hospital at the least possible expense, that all classes may be permitted to enjoy advantages now open only to persons possessing pecuniary means. The expense being thus reduced, towns will doubtless be induced to place their pauper lunatics there, instead of crowding them into the cells of prisons, or disposing of the care of them to the lowest bidder.

We cannot close this brief notice without cordially commending this sensible and well-written Report (which, we understand, is from the pen of Mr. Mann, the Chairman of the Commissioners,) to general perusal, with the hope that the valuable information and excellent views it contains, in relation to a subject of great public interest, may lead to a just appreciation of the practical utility of the institution about to be established. We would recommend a cheap edition of the Report for extensive circulation, at least of those parts of it which have a general bearing, should it be thought unnecessary to republish the whole.

ART. IX. — *Remarks on the Mineralogy and Geology of the Peninsula of Nova Scotia, accompanied by a Colored Map, illustrative of the Structure of the Country, and by several Views of its Scenery.* By CHARLES T. JACKSON and FRANCIS ALGER. Cambridge. E. W. Metcalf & Co. 1832. 4to. pp. 116.

THIS is a feast. We have been professionally called from it divers times, yet we have always returned to it with a keen appetite. This is good proof how well the feast is served up. We will not say "got up," for there is no "getting up" about it. This volume is published separately from the "*Memoirs of the American Academy*," in which it is to appear. It is truly a delightful book to the mineralogist and geologist. It contains the results of the observations of two young men, on a field peculiarly their own, — a field which they began to clear and cultivate as early as 1827, when they gave us some account of its hidden treasures. The present work contains their labors in 1829, incorporated with what they had before presented to us in the "*Journal of Science*." They have examined accurately, and described minutely, a great mass of facts; and have avowed honestly, fearlessly, but very modestly their opinions on some theoretical points in geology.

But this sketch is not a mere dry detail of mineralogical and geological facts, interesting only to those initiated in these sciences; there is to be sure, no sweet discourse of birds to lure us onward, but our enterprising travellers take us on board their little vessel, specially chartered for our accommodation, and we are piloted around the rocky shores of Acadia; now threading the narrow passes among islands and rocky columns, between which the tumultuous tide rushes like a whirlpool; and now riding on the broad bosom of secluded basins, embayed by rocks, the great sea-wall of Nature, rising in immense perpendicular sheets from the ocean. We visit the numerous capes, towering high, like the Giant's Causeway, with basaltic columns, and gaze on scenery so wildly magnificent, that we almost forget, in the sublimity of our emotions, that the professed object of our journey relates to earth. We are led over the Province, and visit its mines of copper and iron and coal; in the last of which, we

all feel a warm interest, and know how profitable it must be to be holders of the stock, if not stockholders in the mines. We are shown immense quarries of limestone and plaster, and are carried to great rocky beds, and learn how to turn out grind-stones. We mention these things for the consolation of our agricultural and manufacturing friends. We are quite sure, that our female readers will be delighted to learn that Nova Scotia, one of the ends of the earth, is Nature's great jewel-shop; teeming with agates and cornelian and chalcedony, beautifully spotted like an "onyx eye," and opal, and Scotch pebble, jasper, and rock-crystal of the hue of the topaz, and beautiful amethyst, and brilliant jet: we trust, therefore, that they will look into the work before us, as into a drawer of precious stones. We commend this work to the favorable notice of all classes. But as all cannot, and some will not, follow our advice, we shall just give such unfortunate persons a glimpse of the work; and whilst we confer thus a favor on them, we may have an opportunity of noticing some things which fall under our hammer, not as mineralogists, but as reviewers. We hope that our authors, if they chance to meet with us, will select us as "cabinet specimens" of our class, and not arrange us as "amorphous varieties"; or if they assign us a place among the great "formations" of Reviewers, we trust we shall not be found in "an uncomfortable or *over lying* position." We are not anxious about our origin. Authors generally agree, that it is "Plutonic."

The peninsula of Nova Scotia is marked by three ranges of hills, which divide its geology into three distinct features. Some of these hills are called mountains, though their elevation does not exceed five hundred feet. The three features in the geology of the Province, are trap, sandstone, and clay-slate. These few formations render the geology of the region remarkably simple. The trap constitutes the North Mountain range, which extends with but one interruption, about a hundred and thirty miles in a direction northeast and southwest, gently curving towards the Bay of Fundy, and filling the space between that bay and Annapolis river. It forms, therefore, the north-western coast of the Province, and its lofty mural precipices present their broad front to the sea, an impregnable barrier against its violence. The trap is sometimes amorphous, sometimes columnar. The prismatic columns present three, five, seven, and nine sides. In

some places, as at Isle Haute, the colonnades of trap rise in hexagonal shafts from fifty to a hundred feet above the surface of the water; and these are divided horizontally into blocks, sometimes a foot, but usually less, in diameter, and three times their diameter in length, resting on one another by perfectly flat surfaces. The columns, too, are sometimes curved or twisted in groups.

In no place did our authors observe those articulations of the trapean columns, which are their distinguishing feature in some other localities. At Little River valley, near Digby Neck, the columns present somewhat of the appearance of those of the Giant's Causeway in Ireland; but even here, the columns are imperfectly articulated; and our authors think that the imperfect cup and ball socket may have been produced by the motion of the horizontally broken columns on each other, caused by the action of the sea-water. It appears too, from their observations, that ordinary causes can produce regular concavities in the top of the shafts of trap. The Nova Scotia trap, then, wants some of the characters of genuine basalt which are present in the most celebrated European localities. In its internal structure the trap of Nova Scotia agrees with that from the Hebrides; and in the opinion of our authors is unquestionably basalt. They, however, prefer to call it "columnar trap," leaving, as they modestly say, "the question of its identity with the basalt of Ireland, to be decided by those better able to do it than ourselves." There is another feature in the trap of this Province, pointed out as differing remarkably from the basalt of the Giant's Causeway and the trap of Europe, as noticed by Daubeny; viz. that its breadth is altogether disproportionate to its length. It is about a hundred and thirty miles long, and never exceeds three miles in breadth. It seems to be an immense dyke, "thrown up by one sudden and violent eruption from the unfathomable depths of the Bay of Fundy." It will be seen from this quotation, that our authors adopt the igneous origin of trap. They have added much to our stock of facts on this interesting question. Visiting the Province with notions rather verging to Werner's theory, they became, on the trap formation, disciples of Hutton; and still keeping their minds open to truth, they left the shores of Nova Scotia, impressed, as every honest inquirer has ever been, with the belief that the judicious union of the Neptunian and Plutonic

theories accounts satisfactorily for the present appearances of our earth's surface.

The trap formation passes into trap-tuff, and this into amygdaloid, which is succeeded by sandstone alternating with shale. Specimens were collected amply illustrating the opinion of Messrs. Jackson and Alger, that shale, red sandstone, and compact trap concur to form trap-tuff composed of angular or rounded fragments of the three rocks, which passes by consecutive gradations into perfect amygdaloid, trap-tuff being an intermediate state, necessary to its formation. This opinion is abundantly fortified by their observations. Wherever the junction of shale, red sandstone, and trap occurred, there trap-tuff and amygdaloid were found; and they were not found where this junction did not occur. At Tower Hill nature seems to have tried "her 'prentice hand" to make amygdaloid out of shale and sandstone only. She has succeeded so well that she has ventured to put the imitated in the place of the genuine amygdaloid in relation to trap. But the counterfeit is easily detected; for she has filled the cavities of the amygdaloid not with zeolite, but with gypsum, which abounds in the sandstone. We have not room to mention the numerous rare and interesting minerals found in the trap formation. We are quite of our authors' belief, "that it is one of the most extensive and fruitful fields for mineralogical and geological research which the known world presents." Among the great variety of minerals which they collected, there is one which may possibly prove to be a new species; but our authors wait patiently the result of the chemical analysis of this, by their friend Mr. Hayes. We are glad it has fallen into such good hands. If it fortunately should prove to be a new species, the delight of the discoverers can be equalled only by that with which they look upon the gigantic crystal of "Scottish topaz," found by them near Paradise river; a crystal weighing nearly a hundred pounds, a foot in diameter, and one of whose acuminate planes is twelve inches long. Its splendid display of colors, when the interior is illuminated by strong transmitted light, changing the whole substance into a beautiful transparency, reflecting the varied tints of topaz-yellow and clove-brown, is described with such heart-leaping enthusiasm, that we are not at all surprised at the declaration of our authors, "that it is the noblest production which the country has afforded" them.

*Sandstone*, with slate, forms moderately elevated and rounded hills in Cumberland and part of Hants counties, extending from the Basin of Mines, northerly to the gulf of St. Lawrence, and eastwardly to Sidney county, — embracing the Districts of Colchester and Pictou, and thus forming a large portion of the Province. Its appearance changes very much with its situation, being always of a *tile-red* color when near the trap.

The sandstone is itself quarried for grindstones. The best of these are procured at South Joggin, and are wrought on the shore of Cumberland Bay. The deeper dug, the better the stone. Hence a few layers are removed, which make an inferior article ; and then, as low down as possible, the better sort are obtained. The workmen frequently meet in cutting the stone with “bull’s eyes,” so termed,—hard, rounded nodules from one to ten inches in diameter, more compact, and having less argillaceous cement than the surrounding stone. Wherever these “evil eyes” occur, the stone is condemned as useless.

But the sandstone is not only itself a valuable rock ; it contains within its bosom rich treasures of plaster, lime, coal, copper, and salt.

Immense beds of plaster occur in the sandstone. Halliburton, in his “History of Nova Scotia,” says, that 100,000 tons are annually shipped to the United States. These beds of the plaster are situated all round the shores of the Mines’ Basin, and at several places along the coast of the gulf of St. Lawrence. The largest are at Windsor, and on the banks of the Maran river. Our authors remark, that though plaster is highly valued in the United States as a manure, yet its native hills are not clothed with such luxuriant vegetation as those where its presence is entirely wanting.

Salt-springs occur at various places bordering on the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the richest of which are situated near the river Philip. These have yielded great quantities of salt, by evaporating their briny waters ; though we infer from the remarks of our authors, that they are now abandoned. No rock-salt has been discovered in their vicinity, nor has the sand-rock any perceptible salt taste. These facts are important. They enable us to place the sand-rock in the same class, in the opinion of the authors, with that of western New York, “with the red marle of Connybeare and Phillips,



which includes the salt mines of England and Poland," and with that of Connecticut and Hudson rivers.

Very important beds of coal, highly bituminous, occur in the village of New Glasgow, near East river. The coal is included between strata of sandstone, covered by decayed blackish shale. In its character it approaches the Newcastle coal. The mining operations are now extensively conducted, and vast quantities of this fuel are shipped to the United States. It is the Pictou coal of our markets. The sandstone embraces all the coal of Nova Scotia; and probably this same formation, extending into the Province of New Brunswick, embraces the coal measures recently discovered on the Grand Lake, in the interior parts of that Province, and has its traces even west of the river St. John. We regard every fact relating to the coal measures in North America as of great importance, and we hope that our authors will not lose sight of this interesting subject in their future researches. We should have been much pleased if their observations had been more extended in Nova Scotia. The sandstone contains one other important mineral, namely, copper, found in beds between the strata, near Carriboo river, in the township of New Philadelphia, where this river empties itself into the gulf of St. Lawrence. Masses of vitreous copper ore, invested with delicate fibres of blue and green carbonate of the metals, occur at this locality. This is the richest of all the ores of copper. The miners from Cornwall who were exploring the mine, called the ore *grey copper*. Messrs. Jackson and Alger analysed it, and found it to be the *vitreous copper*, an ore much more valuable than *grey*. These gentlemen took Klaproth's analysis of the Siberian vitreous copper, as the model for conducting their analysis, and seem to have obtained different results, at which they appear somewhat surprised. Now we are surprised, that, having taken Klaproth for their guide, they did not follow his steps exactly. They have given a full detail of their *modus operandi*, which we have read and carefully compared with Klaproth's. We suggest to our authors a repetition of the process. Notwithstanding their declaration, that on repeating it they could "discover no source of fallacy," we are inclined to believe that there are two sources of fallacy; one relating to the whole process of Klaproth, which gave him incorrect results, and for which our authors are not re-

sponsible; the other source of fallacy is in their deviation from this process, for which they are responsible. Their analysis fails in being a fair comparative process with Klaproth's; and hence if they failed in obtaining the same results, it does not follow that the Nova Scotia ore differs from the Siberian. Klaproth's process was fallacious, because the chlorine evolved by dropping nitric acid into muriatic, in which the copper ore was boiling, converts a portion of its sulphur into sulphuric acid, and because it is impossible to separate copper from a solution by iron, without precipitating some of the carbon contained in the iron; besides, the precipitate thus obtained will be partially oxydated in drying. Nor can iron be separated from copper by ammonia, without precipitating a notable quantity of copper, which no excess of ammonia will dissolve. Klaproth dissolved his ore, as above stated, then collected the insoluble portion, which he treated a *second time* as he had the ore. The precipitate was then collected and dried; its weight amounted to 19.25 per cent., which, being ignited, left a residuum equal to 0.75 per cent., which he called *silex*. We are inclined, from its quantity, to think it was in part metallic oxyde. Messrs. Jackson and Alger dissolved their ore as Klaproth did, *but they collected the insoluble portion without a second digestion, and washed it with dilute nitric acid*, adding the washing to the filtered solution, *and then proceeded at once to dry and weigh the precipitate*, which was found to amount to 19 per cent., which being ignited left a residuum equal to 1 per cent., which they called *undissolved ore*, and *treated it as such, digesting it in nitro-muriatic acid*, and adding this to the filtered solution. We have italicized the portions wherein they departed from Klaproth. It is evident, that they estimated the sulphur too low, having one per cent. of the ore undissolved, when that result was obtained. In the after treatment of this portion, the washing with dilute nitric acid would evolve sulphuretted hydrogen, and thus the sulphur would escape in part; and when the undissolved portion was digested in nitro-muriatic acid, the sulphur in it became sulphuric acid. Hence their process ought to give, as in fact it did give, less sulphur than Klaproth obtained, both parties obtaining too little, not only of sulphur, but of copper, and too much iron. But our authors say, that they acidulated their ammoniated solution, and precipitated the copper, which

within a trifling fraction equalled that which they had obtained before. We do not consider this decisive of the correctness of the first result; and if this loss occurred on a repetition of the process, we are surprised that they did not suspect some source of fallacy. The loss was probably equal to all the copper precipitated with the iron, in separating this metal by ammonia. We believe, however, that the analysis of our authors gives the most accurate results, as respects the copper, and doubtless if they had analysed the Siberian ore, it would have given them the same results as the ore of Nova Scotia; or if this had been tested by Klaproth, he would have confirmed his own results; each following his own process. But with the deviation from Klaproth, there is a wonderful uniformity in the two analyses.

	Klaproth.	Jackson and Alger.
Iron . . .	2.25	2.50
Sulphur . .	18.50	18.
Copper . . .	78.50	79.50
Silex . . .	.75	
	<hr/> 100.00	<hr/> 100.00

These differences, we think, are easily accounted for, as we have above shown. We have not mentioned these things to cavil; the difference is trifling, and is therefore in our view of so much the more consequence. We are no believers in the practical value, to the refiner, of these minute analyses; but as carrying the philosophy of chemistry, definite proportions, and atomic combinations into the mineral kingdom, we think them to be of immense importance, and of inestimable value to science. Where the differences are so small, they give us confidence in the accuracy of the several persons who have been engaged in the analysis. We doubt not that if our authors will analyse both ores, on more correct principles, that the results will lead them to conclude that they are similar atomic combinations of copper and iron and sulphur. We advise them, however, to regard "trifling losses" as filings of gold. We are very uncompromising on this subject.

The last of the great formations of Nova Scotia is *Clay-slate*, of which the South Mountain range is composed, and which, stretching from Pictou District on the east to the

opposite western coast, covers nearly one half of the Province, presenting every where a uniform geological character. The direction of the strata is north, sixty degrees east, and the dip fifty or sixty degrees. This formation frequently alternates with quartz rock, which seems to have been mistaken by some other observers in this region for primitive trap. The slate is extensively quarried at Rawdon, both for writing and for roofing slate, and in other places for building materials. Dykes of trap porphyry interrupt the strata of slate in two places, cutting them at right angles, and completely intercepting a great bed of iron ore, which runs from one extremity of the slate formation to the other, continuous and parallel with its strata. This is the most interesting feature in the slate formation. The ore bed is from ten to sixteen feet wide, and shows a very remarkable difference in its character, accordingly as it approaches or recedes from the trap formation. At Pictou, remote from trap, it is in the state of peroxide, neither metallic in lustre nor magnetic, yielding about fifty per cent. of metal. At Clement's mine, the western terminus of the bed, and nearer the trap, the ore is in the state of protoxide, glistening with metallic lustre; and it is highly magnetic, yielding in the furnace somewhat less than sixty-five per cent. of strong, soft iron. Our authors discuss the question relating to these different states of the ore. Why is it a peroxide and non-magnetic at Pictou, and a magnetic protoxide at Clement's? They find their answer in heat; this has caused the variation of character, and they find the source of this heat in the igneous origin of trap. We must refer our readers to the work itself for our authors' proof of the truth of their theory. To us it appears satisfactory. The argument drawn from the state of the organic remains is sound and ingenious. Our limits will allow us only to say, that organic remains abound in the slate and in the ore-bed of iron. Both contain beautifully perfect remains of shells. In some spots bivalves only of the genus *anomia* are found in the ore, whilst, in others, this same bed contains encrinurites, ammonites, and trilobites. The coal measures abound in the vegetable remains common to that formation, and numerous remains of culmiferous plants, some of which are of gigantic size, occur in the grindstone quarries. To conclude, we would observe that the work is accompanied with an excellent colored Geological Map of the Province,

and adorned with several well executed lithographic views of its romantic and picturesque scenery ; and these are so colored as to illustrate many features in its geological history.

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ART. X. — *Monthly American Journal of Geology and Natural Science.* Conducted by G. W. FEATHERSTONHAUGH, Esq. No. IX. Philadelphia, March, 1832.

WE are glad to find that our fears as to the success of this valuable Journal are dispelled by the appearance of the ninth number. The delay in the publication of this number is accounted for by the failure of the former publisher. We trust that the able and accomplished editor will have no cause to regret that he has determined to finish the volume at his own expense.

Of the ultimate success of the work there can be little doubt, if it continues to exhibit the science and independence which now distinguish it. The reputation of Mr. Featherstonhaugh, as a man of science and letters has been long established both in this country and in Europe. The articles from the pen of the editor are written with purity and force, and it may be confidently anticipated that unimportant and incorrect communications will not be admitted, nor the pages of the Journal be disfigured by speculations discreditable to American science.

"The leading character of this work is geological, and it may be considered as devoted to the exposition of the geology and natural history of this continent ; and to elementary instruction, concerning the principles and details of these important branches of knowledge." In this it differs from the "*American Journal of Science and Arts*," which is "a repository for papers of every description."

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ART. XI. — *First Book of the Fine and Useful Arts, for the Use of Schools and Lyceums.* Compiled by MARSHALL S. PERRY, M. D. Boston. Carter & Hendee. 1832. 12mo. pp. 126.

THIS is a pleasing exception to the great number of publications "for Schools and Lyceums," which are daily put

forth. With a modesty somewhat rare in these works, it is announced as a compilation; perhaps it might with more propriety have been entitled an Abridgment of Dr. Bigelow's "Technology." It will be found a convenient and useful school-book.

ART. XII. — *Truth, a Gift for Scribblers.* Second Edition, with Additions and Emendations. By W. J. SNELLING. Boston. B. B. Mussey. 1832. 18mo. pp. 72.

THIS work is intended as a satire upon American poets, with the exception of a few, of whom it contains what are meant for panegyrics. Mr. Snelling has been "disgusted by newspaper puffs of would-be poets," and has resolved to extirpate the race.

The author evidently thinks that he has written a very smart poem. He shows nothing of the timidity of one who entertains any doubt of his powers as a poet and a satirist. He speaks of using the weapons of satire, in full confidence that he is to make most deadly havoc in the ranks of the worshippers of the Muses; he seems to have an amiable consciousness of being most sarcastically severe; talks of acknowledging ability where he finds it, with a modest reliance on his power of allotting to each his just measure of talent; and of blasting the literary hopes of a writer, as if this must be the certain effect of the breath of his sarcasm. "Now have I shot my shafts" — "Many have suffered" — "I've driven the scalpel deeply" — and the like.

Mr. Snelling evidently has at command the whole vocabulary of vituperation. "Dunce — vermin — booby — stupid — paltry — jackdaw — blackguard — twaddling" — are some of the epithets which he showers upon the objects of his satire. The application of terms like these to gentlemen whose greatest fault is the having published verses which do not suit his pure and classical taste, is no mark either of good sense or of good manners. Any body can call names.

We find little in Mr. Snelling's book which shows him to be a good judge of poetry, and much that proves the contrary. Some of the noblest of our poets he praises; all the meanest he satirizes; but it required no great acuteness to do this; he has simply followed the voice of public opinion.

Upon the greater part of those who occupy the middle place — the debatable ground of Parnassus, he has poured a torrent of promiscuous, undistinguishing abuse ; thus showing a want of discrimination, which is the great defect in the book considered as a work of criticism, and which convinces us that he has little taste and judgment in the affairs of the Muses. Of about fifty authors mentioned by name, four-fifths are made the objects of sarcasm. Hardly any distinction is made between them ; as poets, all are censured ; the only difference in their treatment consists in the application of personally offensive language to some, and not to others. Thus we can see little difference between the sentence of condemnation passed upon the poetry of Dana, Willis, Pierpont, and Ware, and that pronounced upon the verses of Fairfield, Morris, Finn, and Dawes.

This want of discrimination is so palpable throughout, that it would be a tedious and useless task to point out the particular cases in which gross injustice has been done. We will confine ourselves to a single instance. After some verses in ridicule of Allston's "*Sylphs of the Seasons*," Mr. Snelling says, in a note, "It would be hard to speak as ill of it as it deserves." Can he have read the poem ? If he have not, we lament his want of honesty ; if he have, we pity his want of taste. The "*Sylphs*" is a poem less known than it deserves to be ; it is full of poetic richness and purity and beauty. We will venture, in proof of our assertion, to quote a short passage from it, though but an imperfect specimen of the poem.

" And now, in accents deep and low,  
Like voice of fondly-cherished woe,  
The Sylph of Autumn sad :  
' Though I may not of raptures sing,  
That graced the gentle song of Spring,  
Like Summer, playful pleasures bring,  
Thy youthful heart to glad ;

" ' Yet still may I in hope aspire  
Thy heart to touch with chaster fire  
And purifying love :  
For I with vision high and holy,  
And spell of quick'ning melancholy,  
Thy soul from sublunary folly  
First raised to worlds above.

\* \* \*

" 'T was I, when thou, subdued by woe,  
 Didst watch the leaves descending slow,  
     To each a moral gave,  
 And as they moved in mournful train,  
 With rustling sound, along the plain,  
 Taught them to sing a seraph's strain  
     Of peace within the grave.

" ' And then, upraised thy streaming eye,  
 I met thee in the western sky  
     In pomp of evening cloud ;  
 That, while with varying form it roll'd,  
 Some wizard's castle seemed of gold,  
 And now a crimsoned knight of old  
     Or king in purple proud.

" ' And last, as sunk the setting sun,  
 And Evening with her shadows dun  
     The gorgeous pageant past,  
 'T was then of life a mimic show,  
 Of human grandeur here below,  
 Which thus beneath the fatal blow  
     Of Death must fall at last.

" ' Oh, then with what aspiring gaze  
 Didst thou thy tranced vision raise  
     To yonder orbs on high,  
 And think how wondrous, how sublime,  
 'T were upwards to their spheres to climb,  
 And live, beyond the reach of time,  
     Child of Eternity.' "

And these are verses of which "it would be hard to speak as ill as they deserve."

In the Notes to "Truth," we meet with occasional quotations from Juvenal and Horace. They have somewhat of the air of being looked out for the occasion ; but they are generally so ill applied, that we cannot put a more charitable construction upon their use, than to suppose them introduced for the purpose of showing that the author has read the Roman satirists. We would recommend to him a little more intimate acquaintance with the spirit of those masters of invective. He will learn from them that vulgarity is a poor substitute for wit, and that scurrility is not synonymous with satire.

From one who takes it upon himself to censure others, we



feel that we have some right to expect a degree of freedom from faults ; a certain portion of excellence. But we cannot allow Mr. Snelling much poetical merit. We find little harmony in his versification, little beauty in his expressions, much affectation in his style. There is a sort of rawness in his numbers, and the current of his verse seems to "flow muddily along." If we add to this the coarseness of the raillery, and the entire want of delicacy in the strains of compliment, we shall find but little reason to place this poem high among the productions of the satiric muse.

Let us look at a few examples, which will show the general tone and character of the whole.

To the author of some poetical pieces of great beauty, a man of pure and correct taste in poetry, are applied the following elegant couplets.

"Prime Parson, but poor poet ; sells, in short,  
Soup for the alms-house, at a cent a quart :"

"Yet be no poet ; be advised by me ;  
Stick to thy pulpit ; let the Muses be."

Against one who is regarded by some as the first, by all as among the first, of American poets, is directed this keen and exquisite raillery :

"And croaking Dana strains his screech-owl throat."

We may take the following remarks on Willis, as a favorable specimen of the melodious versification, refined wit, and energetic sarcasm which prevail throughout the poem.

"Oh what a tip-top tailor thus was spoiled !  
Had he but sat cross-legged, what Snip had moiled  
To so much purpose ? He had cabbaged then  
As now, and clipped the cloth of better men :  
No goose had hissed like his ; his want of skill  
Had made our coats and breeches look as ill  
As now it does mere paper ; then his shears  
Had spared old authors, and his voice our ears." p. 34.

On page 37, we have some verses upon the late T. G. C. Brainard. We would call the attention of our readers to the modesty displayed in these lines ;

"Be *mine* the task to make fresh roses bloom,  
And shed *undying* fragrance on thy tomb :"

and to the harmony and finish of the following ;

" Hard, hard thy lot, and great the country's shame  
That let such offspring die without his fame.  
He pin'd to see the buds his brow had deck'd,  
Nipt by the bitter blight of cold neglect."

Indeed, the author's grace in panegyric is upon the same level with his delicacy in satire. How much originality and beauty in this compliment to Bryant !

" He writes no line his friends could wish effaced."

How much force is given to the following tribute of praise, by the artful and poetical repetition of the negative !

—— " the Muses' youngest son,  
Equalled by few, surpassed by none, *not one* ! "

We do not refuse to Mr. Snelling all credit for ability as a writer. We deny him not the merit of having said a few smart things. He has, perhaps justly, a reputation for considerable talent. We are sorry that he should have prostituted it by so weak an attempt at satire. We think he will yet regret having rudely wounded the feelings of some, and unjustly denied their due merit to others. " Truth " may have a temporary notoriety, but will soon be forgotten. It is an ephemeral production, without strength to support a long existence. It will be a literal refutation of the ancient motto, "*Magna est veritas et prævalebit.*"

We are led by reading this book, to make a single remark upon the state of poetry among us. We do not wish to deny that it is a fair subject of satire. It is lamentable to behold the quantities of rubbish which are scattered from the press under the name of poetry. In all other pursuits it is thought necessary that a man should have some shadow of a pretension to a slight knowledge of what he attempts to do. Poetry alone seems to be an exception to this rule. But if satire is to be employed against the aspirants to the name of poet, let it be satire of a generous kind ; let it be just and discriminating ; let not the satirist think himself freed from the common obligations to civility and decency ; let him not condescend to petty scurrility and personal abuse ; let his shafts fall upon the writer, and not upon the man ; let his weapons be sharp and bright and pointed, but tempered by courtesousness, and guided by good taste.

But if we are ever to have a literature of which we may be proud, it will not be by encouraging mediocrity, or by sparing the feelings of sensitive incapacity. If men will write poetry, they should know that they must write well, in order to escape with impunity, and that those only should be suffered to enjoy the sacred name of poets now, whom posterity will save from oblivion.

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ART. XIII. — *Secrecy, a Poem, pronounced at the Installation of the Officers of the Boston Encampment of Knights Templars. February 28, 1832.* By THOMAS POWER. Boston. Moore & Sevey. 1832. 12mo. pp. 24.

WE must thank Mr. Power for informing us, on the title-page, and in the following verses,

“ Under indulgence let our subject be,  
In human life, the worth of secrecy,”

what the subject of his poem is; otherwise, after having read his twenty-four pages of verse, if we had been asked, “What is this poem about?” — we should have answered as one of our acquaintance once answered a similar question, — “About three hundred and fifty couplets.”

Mr. Power, according to an ancient custom, little heeded by modern readers,

“ Invokes the mercy of each critic eye.”

Writers have no such immunities now-a-days, since they have become too plenty to be treated with marked ceremony, and are regarded much like people of other callings. We should think it strange if a shoemaker, upon bringing us a pair of boots, should say, “Sir, I fear these boots are very badly made; the stock is poor, and the sewing weak; but I beg that, if you do not like them, you would say nothing about the matter.”

Mr. Power deserves credit, such as it is, for the well-balanced mechanism of the rhythm, and the general exactness of the rhyme, throughout his poem; and if we had remembered nothing of Pope but his tuneful numbers, we might have risen from “*Secrecy*,” thinking ourselves lulled into vacuity by the unchanging melody of that poet. But

there is no more merit in such versification, than in an ear which can distinguish the notes of the gamut. "I'll rhyme you so eight years together, dinners, and suppers, and sleeping hours excepted."

We should add, however, that Mr. Power rouses us here and there by the abrupt introduction of lyric versification; as when, for instance, a sudden poetic frenzy hurries him into the warlike Anapæst. Thus, after reciting the following grave Iambic couplet,

"Now humbly learns God's purpose to obey,  
Ere life, its hopes and passions pass away,"

we can imagine the striking effect of the transition to the following strain;

"Now trace we the course of proud glory's bright star  
In the tumult of battle — the horrors of war —  
In the neigh of the war-horse — the clangor of arms —  
In the note of the bugle or trumpet's alarms."

ART. XIV. — *Retrospections of the Stage.* By the late JOHN BERNARD, Manager of the American Theatres, &c. Boston. Carter & Hendee. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 235 and 215.

JOHN BERNARD was born at Portsmouth (England) in 1756, "went on the stage in 1774, and quitted it in 1820," and was connected during the last half of the forty-six years of his public career with the American theatres. He early became delighted with theatrical entertainments; but the first inclination which he felt to take a personal share in them as an actor, was occasioned by the school exhibitions in which he performed a part on "the eve of the holidays, when the learned and indulgent domine, Mr. Low, used invariably to fall into that amiable failing so prevalent among pedagogues, of getting up a play." The theatrical mania with which he was seized reached an alarming height at the age of sixteen, and proved too violent to yield to the tender remonstrances of a serious mother, or to the apprehensions of a sterner interference on the part of his father, in the intervals of a sea-faring life. But so it was, that before he had a full right to be his own master, both parents consented to his wishes, considering their consent as a choice of evils.

During the period of his connexion with the English theatres, being nearly one-fourth of a century, he saw and heard a great deal which is worth relating, and a great deal which might as well not be told. There is scarcely any description of persons which he did not meet with first or last, either in London, where it was said long ago, that "let a man's character, sentiments, or complexion be what they will, he can find company to match them," or at Bath, the resort of fashion and folly and crime, or in other considerable places where he had a temporary residence, or which he visited in his provincial campaigns. Accordingly we are introduced to a very motley company; (to say nothing of the vilest gradations) to retainers at inns, strolling-players, and players of all sorts; to musicians, scribblers, literati, and philosophers; to princes, statesmen, lords, and commoners, besides citizens of the world. He passed much time year after year with many of these in the overflowings of wit and conviviality, at clubs and private entertainments, maintaining withal a good degree of self-respect, neither ashamed of his craft and humbler companions, nor boasting of his fellowship with men in higher stations.

In such intercourse, and so long continued, he found opportunities to gather stories and anecdotes of various qualities and kinds, benevolent and heroic, or humorous, silly, ludicrous, mischievous, vexatious, and profane,—ghost stories not excepted. His narratives of indelicate and licentious adventures are told frequently with an appearance of regard merely to historical fidelity, without censure or expressions of disgust; and his descriptions of vicious and dissolute characters have sometimes more of lightness than severity. Here and there we find snatches of good philosophical speculation on the mimetic art, of which we could wish there was more; and many of his descriptions of persons and personal habits and qualities are very well drawn and very entertaining. We select one of these from a number most to our taste, relating to the celebrated Dr. Herschel. Bernard, being a very young man, was at Bath, and awkwardly situated for want of skill in performing the musical parts assigned to him in the opera. Herschel, perceiving this, offered to give him private instruction upon terms to be arranged at a future time.

"This offer I gratefully accepted, and attended him twice a week, at his own lodgings, which then resembled an astronomer's much more than a musician's, being heaped up with globes, maps, telescopes, reflectors, &c., under which his piano was hid, and the violoncello, like a discarded favorite, skulked away in one corner.

"This was not the only evidence of Mr. Herschel's astrological propensities, nor were they a public secret; he had taken observations, and communicated with philosophical societies; the consequence of which was, that he had been quizzed by the fiddlers, and called by the charitably disposed an eccentric. To his friends and to myself he alluded to these studies without embarrassment, and would modestly remark, that 'all men had their failings, and this was his.' When I came to him of an evening, and caught him thus employed, he would tell me with a laugh, to take care how I stepped over his 'new world,' and didn't run foul of his 'celestial system'; and when I helped him to put his machinery aside, he had a standing joke in calling me his 'Atlas,' because I once carried the globe on my shoulders. When the removal was made, the fiddle was taken down, or the harpsicord opened, without farther comment. . . . .

"Notwithstanding I was so familiar with his pursuits, one evening he gave me a surprise. The opera of 'Lionel and Clarissa' was announced, in which I was given the part of Lord Jessamy. His Lordship having a difficult song, I went as usual to my clever friend to rehearse it. It was cold and clear weather, but the sky that night was rather cloudy; and the moon peeped out only now and then from her veil. Herschel had a fire in his back-apartment, and placed the music-stand near its window, which I could not account for. He then procured his violin, and commenced the song, playing over the air twice or thrice to familiarize me with its general idea; and then leading me note by note to its thorough acquaintance. We got through about five bars pretty well, till of a sudden the sky began to clear up, and his eye was unavoidably attracted by the celestial bodies coming out, as it were, one by one from their hiding-places: my eye, however, was fixed on the book: and when he exclaimed, 'Beautiful! beautiful!' squinting up at the stars, I thought he alluded to the music. At length the whole host threw aside their drapery, and stood forth in native loveliness:—the effect was sudden and subduing,—'Beautiful, beautiful,' shouted Herschel, 'there he is at last!' dropping the fiddle, snatching a telescope, throwing up the window, and (though it was a night in January) beginning to survey an absentee planet, which he had been long looking for. . . . .

"Herschel, when in company, owing to the above causes, was exceedingly abstracted, and would frequently listen to a long story without comprehending a word of it. This was very mortifying to the person who had been endeavouring to entertain him; and on subsequent occasions, when this absence was perceived, it grew to a common remark with many, — 'He's in the clouds again, he's star-gazing!'" . . . .

"Let me conclude these notices, as I would always wish to do when I cannot praise the talents, with a record to the virtues of this individual. The point of terms, though I repeatedly pressed him to settle it, he invariably deferred, saying, he had not time then to talk about 'terms,' he had only time to give me a 'lesson.' At the end of the season, having regularly received my two lessons a-week, I waited on him to know what remuneration I should make; when he refused to receive a shilling, saying, 'He had undertaken to teach me, because he thought I could not afford to pay any one.'

"Ten years after this, I met the Doctor in London, where he was established as an astronomer, and we renewed and continued our acquaintance." pp. 37-40.

In the author's own walk, we might, if we could spare room, select his account of the veteran Macklin, as particularly interesting.

These volumes will be welcomed, no doubt, by all patrons of theatricals and play-going people. They bring down the author's "*Retrospections of the Stage*" only to the time of his embarking for this country, the first volume having closed with the close of his theatrical engagements in Ireland. The author says, in his concluding address to the reader, "I consider the two volumes now submitted, as defining periods which form two acts in the drama of my life; and that if you are at all desirous the curtain should go up a third time, you need but to 'make a noise,' and the wish will be complied with."

We are not told by the Editor, the author's son, who abridged and prepared these volumes for the press, whether a third volume is ready for the press when it shall be called for by the public.

ART. XV. — *A Memoir of Miss Hannah Adams. Written by HERSELF. With Additional Notices, by A FRIEND.* Boston. Gray & Bowen. 1832. 12mo. pp. 110.

AN objection has been made to the writing of Memoirs of one's self for different reasons ; but in some respects autobiography is both more pleasing and more instructive than any other biography. It has more freshness and bears the very impress of the mind and character of the individual, instead of a description or analysis of them. However deficient one may be in self-knowledge, yet there are many things which he knows about himself better than any body else can know them ; and if it be not so, he will unconsciously disclose qualities which others will perceive and appreciate. If he be vain, he will strive to no purpose to make his reader believe that he was wont to shrink from notoriety ; his ruling passion will break through all disguise, honestly or artfully assumed ; and though he may sometimes provoke, he will be pretty sure to amuse his readers. If he be modest, he will be neither prolix nor discursive, probably less entertaining than the vain, not given to prattle and gossip, but on the whole more attractive.

If ever man or woman deserved to be classed among modest persons or authors, Hannah Adams must be classed there. But we do not single out this virtue of modesty, marked as it is, for particular exemplification. It will appear throughout, in the brief remarks we shall make upon her life and character.

Miss Adams was in several respects a very remarkable woman. In her physical constitution she was feeble and nervous ; her social tendencies were rebuked by timidity ; her wishes to conform to the customs of external politeness (which she prized at their full value) were frustrated by an awkwardness of which she was painfully conscious ; and to sum up all in a word, in regard to social intercourse, she felt an abiding uneasiness in consequence of a full conviction that in every thing external she was not like other people. Her education, except the humblest elementary instruction at school, was a matter of mere accident and caprice. When she had reached the tenth year of her age, she was deprived of her mother, and very soon after of an aunt, "who was



attached to her with almost maternal fondness ;” and thus her sister, a little older than herself, became her principal friend and adviser. Her father had enjoyed the benefit of a good school education according to the notions then prevailing, and had learned a little Latin and Greek ; but he was a man of no thrift, and no skill in applying his knowledge to advantage.\* Still her curiosity and almost innate love of knowledge supplied in a good degree the want of instruction. Her “first idea of Heaven was, of a place where we should find our thirst for knowledge fully gratified.” In early life her reading consisted of novels of which she was “passionately fond,” and of poetry, of which she was an “enthusiastic admirer” ; while she “did not neglect the study of history and biography.” The ideal world which was pictured in her imagination from reading poetry and fictitious writings without discrimination and without guidance, was to her an occasion of regret and unhappiness in after life ; and to this she ascribed some of the “errors of her understanding.” Her curiosity, however, reached to more substantial things, and, with such aid and instruction as she could procure, she obtained considerable knowledge of Latin and Greek ; and in her turn she gave instruction in the same to three young gentlemen, one of whom pursued his studies with her till he entered the University at Cambridge.

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\* His baptismal name we do not remember, if we ever knew it ; but he was such a greedy devourer of books, that he was more familiarly known by a characteristic prænomen substituted for the real one ; and thus he was generally called Book Adams. He was altogether a curiosity, a locomotive library. He was much better than an Index ; for he could not only tell one where to find any fact in the multitude of voyages, travels, histories, and books of antiquities which he had read, but could recite for hours and days their various details. With the digesting of these materials he had nothing to do ; they were stored merely as goods valuable for their own sake, or to be dealt out for the gratuitous use of those who had the wish or the patience to receive them. His lean image on his lean walking or ambling pony, with a volume open before his eyes, and with his saddle-bags stuffed with his daughter's books to be distributed or vended, is still fresh in our recollection. It was some thirty years ago we remember, in the library of Harvard College, which he frequently visited, and which he never entered without rapture similar to that which affects some persons when presented to a Pope, an Emperor, or king, he lifted up both hands and exclaimed with hearty simplicity, “I’d rather be Librarian of Harvard College than Emperor of all the Russias !”

Concerning Miss Adams's history and calamities as an author we have no room for remark. The "View of Religions," her first work, which is also a standard work, was suggested by accident, and pursued to a considerable extent without any intention of publishing it. It was poverty and not ambition that led the author to put it to the press. Her other principal works, "The History of New England," and "The History of the Jews," are both creditable performances, and occasioned the author much wearisome research; for she was conscientious in her literary undertakings, and, however fond she was of fiction, her love of truth was stronger.

It seems a little remarkable that Miss Adams, whose favorite reading was poetical, fictitious, and imaginative, should fix her mind upon such subjects as those to which she devoted the best part of her life. But the explanation is found in her modesty. She had made a low estimate of her abilities, except in her power of reading rapidly and understandingly, of acquiring knowledge, and of remembering her acquisitions; of these things she could not be ignorant, and did not affect to be. She always spoke of herself as a mere compiler, and "it was her firm persuasion that she never wrote any thing original." "It is other people's thoughts," said she, "that I put into my own language." But, like other people, she had abundance of thoughts which came she knew not how or whence; and in regard to her readiness, simplicity, and neatness in expressing them, she excelled. Besides what may be gathered from her published works, there are fragments of Miss Adams's compositions remaining, which furnish proof that as a moral, thinking, intellectual writer, she might have reached no inconsiderable eminence. She could indite her sentiments and emotions in verse with great simplicity and feeling, and moralize with great clearness and discrimination in prose. We cannot forbear to quote one example of this, which is furnished by the judicious "Friend" who has given the "Additional Notices" to the "Memoir."

"One of her young friends put to her this interrogative. 'Ought mankind to be respected for their personal worth alone, abstracted from all accidental causes?'

"To this question Miss Adams replied.

"'Mankind ought primarily to be respected for their personal worth; yet if accidental causes make that worth appear more conspicuous, it may increase our esteem, which still is founded

on personal worth in proportion as it appears. The more we see of virtue, the more it ought to attract our love and admiration. Virtue becomes visible only by its effects. The diamond we value for its intrinsic worth. But when it is polished and set, its essential beauty appears more refulgent. So external accomplishments, and accidental causes, set forth the original beauty of virtue, and serve to heighten its charms. There are particular circumstances in which every virtue will shine with peculiar lustre. For instance, humility has intrinsic excellence. But it appears most attractive in those who are placed in affluent circumstances, and are surrounded by pomp and splendor. Fortitude, also, is an excellent quality of the mind. But suffering and adversity must bring it forth. Persons who have performed eminent services for their country are worthy of greater honor, than those who have remained in private life with equal worth. I conclude, therefore, that mankind ought to be esteemed for their personal worth, as it is rendered conspicuous by accidental causes.'” pp. 61 – 63.

The “Memoir” is brief. It was written towards the close of the author’s life at the request of a friend, and evidently with a determination to say as little of herself, as a compliance with the request would justify. It is throughout unpretending in respect to her personal deserts, and full of gratitude for all the kindnesses which she had received from others. The “Additional Notices” are not at variance with the “Memoir.” They make us acquainted with some things which we did not learn from Miss Adams’s own telling; but there is no exaggeration in the narrative or in the delineations of traits of character. Altogether it is a very useful book, as well as an engaging one, and such a one as is due to the memory of so distinguished a female; and if we did not think it would be in the hands of a great portion of our readers before this number of our Journal will reach them, we should give them fuller accounts and specimens of its contents.

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ART. XVI. — *M. Tullii Ciceronis ad Quintum Fratrem Dialogi Tres de Oratore, cum Excerptis et Notis Variorum.* Novi-Portûs, sumtibus H. Howe. 1832. 12mo. pp. 260.

THIS new edition of an important work of Cicero made its appearance a few weeks ago. From the place of publica-

tion, the signature of the Preface, and the character of the edition itself, we presume it is no breach of decorum to ascribe it to a gentleman who is at the head of one of the branches of the classical department in Yale College, and deservedly respected on account of his learning and zeal, advantageously displayed in the defence of classical studies which proceeded a few years ago from that venerable institution.

The editor mentions, in his short Preface, that he has followed the text of Ernesti; availing himself, however, of some corrections in the punctuation of Dr. Carey's edition.

Many Latin authors have suffered a corruption of their text, and this from very different causes. Some are discovered so late, and the manuscripts of course are in so imperfect a state of preservation, that it is very doubtful whether their text will ever be completely restored. We mention, for the sake of illustration, the treatise of Cicero de Republicâ found by Angelo Mai in Rome, and the work of the Roman lawyer, Gajus, discovered by Niebuhr in Verona. Other writers were known, and copies and editions of their works multiplied, so early, when the standard of critical accuracy was much lower than now, that the errors of the first copyists and editors were carelessly handed down from copy to copy and from edition to edition, and have at last become so firmly planted that many of them will probably never be eradicated.

Cicero is one of those who have suffered from the latter cause. In addition to this, the boldness of some scholars in substituting unhesitatingly their conjectures for the apparently unintelligible readings of the codices has done great injury to this author as well as others. Ernesti holds a high rank among the critics who have endeavoured to restore the text of Cicero to its original purity; he has certainly done much, but we cannot and ought not to conceal that much is still to be done. The industry, learning, and good luck of such men as Mai and Orëlli, will, we confidently hope, contribute much towards furnishing at some time a correct text of Cicero.

The Notes, some of which, owing to a change in the views of the publishers, are in Latin, and some in English, are few in number and short, but judiciously selected, and clearly expressed. The typographical appearance of the book is good, and the print, as far as we have been able to ascertain, correct.

ART. XVII. — *Lectures on Systematic Theology and Pulpit Eloquence*, by the late GEORGE CAMPBELL, D. D., &c. To which are added *Dialogues on Eloquence*, by M. DE FÉNELON, Archbishop of Cambray. Edited by HENRY J. RIPLEY, Professor of Biblical Literature and Pastoral Duties in the Newton Theological Institution. Boston. Lincoln & Edmands. 1832, 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 206 and 102.

THESE Lectures of Dr. Campbell are well known to most of our clergymen and to those recently educated for the ministry; and if they were not so, the character of the author, as one of the most philosophical critics and learned theologians of modern times, would be sufficient to recommend them to gentlemen of that profession for which they are designed. Besides, the truly Christian spirit which pervades all Campbell's theological writings ought to procure for them universal favor, and the gratitude of all who feel that they have a common interest in the prevalence of Christian knowledge, truth, and charity. If the rules, illustrations, and arguments in his work before us pertaining to the study of the Scriptures, and of theological controversy, and to the composition and delivery of sermons were regarded as they should be by preachers of all sects, bigots and heated polemics would be known only in the history of the past, and preaching would attain its legitimate purpose.

Fenelon's "Dialogues on Eloquence" are probably less known to the clergy and theological students of this country, than the work of Campbell to which they are here annexed. Every thing proceeding from that great and good man is entitled to respect;

"His own example sanctioned all his laws."

We are not particularly pleased with the form in which he imparted his instructions on Eloquence, though to some minds it may be more attractive than to ours. Dialogue, if at all natural, leads to a discursive manner of treating a subject, and to digressions, which if they relieve the mind from the pain of continued attention, are too apt to interrupt the current of thought, to impair the didactic character of a work, and to occasion some confusion to the reader. And

so it is, we think, with Fenelon's "Dialogues," to such an extent that we do not receive an adequate compensation for these disadvantages in the vivacity of manner or in the opportunity which is skilfully seized here and there of bringing the Socratic argumentation into successful exercise. The "Dialogues" are full of substantial learning without any of its pedantic forms, and contain much that is valuable to all public speakers, besides what more particularly applies to the eloquence of the pulpit. The translation adopted by Professor Ripley is that of William Stevenson, Rector of Morningthorpe, in Norfolk, "illustrated with notes and quotations."

Professor Ripley informs us in his judicious and well-written Preface, that in this publication of Campbell's Lectures he has omitted the "Introductory Discourses" in the work on "Systematic Theology," with the exception of the first, those which are omitted being of a local character. Some slight omissions, for similar reasons are made in other parts of the "Lectures," and the sentences which occur in the Latin language are translated.

The copious Latin Notes introduced by Fenelon from those great masters of the rhetorical art among the Romans, Cicero and Quintilian, are retained by the editor, and not translated. This is right, and his reasons are satisfactory. But we owe it to the cause of good learning to say, that these Notes, which contain some of the choicest precepts, are very inaccurately printed. In a very cursory reading, we have marked more than a score of palpable errors. We mention this without the least disrespect to the editor, whose learning and regard for learning is well known. But in all such cases we shall do what in us lies to promote a feeling of responsibility on this subject, which after all must rest mainly upon editors.

The value of the book which we have thus noticed, besides the intrinsic worth of its contents, consists in the economical form in which it appears. It contains a great deal of matter in a neat volume, of convenient size.

ART. XVIII. — *Contemplations of the Saviour ; a Series of Extracts from the Gospel History, with Reflections, and Original and Selected Hymns.* By S. GREENLEAF BULFINCH. Boston. Carter & Hendee. 1832. 12mo. pp. 155.

THIS is a very good addition to the class of books intended for aids to family and private devotion. The selections from the Gospel are so chosen and arranged as to give a connected history. They are divided into eight Parts or periods, and subdivided into fifty Sections or smaller portions. Each section is followed by "Reflections," and by an original or selected "Hymn." The "Reflections" are simple and practical, not above the reach of common capacities, nor below the notice of the greatest; serving to recall attention to some more striking circumstance in the Scripture passages, or to bring them home to the heart and conscience; some of them being a kind of abridged homilies or familiar discourses. The Hymns are well adapted to the subjects which precede them, and will be regarded as a valuable part of the work.

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ART. XIX. — *A Third Book for Reading and Spelling, with Simple Rules and Instructions for avoiding common Errors.* By SAMUEL WORCESTER, Author of a "Primer," a "Second Book for Reading and Spelling," &c. Boston. Carter & Hendee. 1832. 12mo. pp. 246.

MR. WORCESTER's allusion, in the title-page to his "Primer" and "Second Book," and particularly the mention made, in the Preface, of imitations of his works by others, amounting we should suppose to larceny, led us to look into these little books. In regard to his allegations, though they come fairly under our tribunal, we can pronounce no judgment in the case, not having examined into it. But we may pronounce a hypothetical judgment; viz. if any person be guilty in the manner set forth, he must be kith and kin to pickpockets. Yet to say nothing more about the morality of the act, we cannot help remarking that if any one has so offended, he has purloined what is of no inconsiderable value.

Mr. Worcester's "Third Book" consists of well-selected pieces, entertaining and instructive. Before each lesson is placed some useful rule in regard to the manner of reading it, and the lesson is followed by a notice of the more common errors in the pronunciation of particular words which occur in the same. The object appears to have been to introduce such pieces as children from ten to twelve years of age can understand, and to accompany them with such directions that they can be read naturally, as if they were understood; and the author seems to us to have well accomplished this object.

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ART. XX. — *Sequel to the Spelling Book.* By S. T. WORCESTER. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, & Wilkins, 1831. 12mo. pp. 128.

THIS book differs from the common spelling-books, in which there is a jumble of words of all kinds collected together without any sort of classification, except what regards the number of syllables in their successive columns. The words are here classed according to grammatical principles, with syllabic divisions, and a notation of vowels and accents, sufficient for a correct pronunciation. Foreign words which we have adopted, and technical words, are not intermixed with those in common use, but follow them, in the latter part of the book. All the words are accompanied by simple definitions. Mr. Worcester's plan, thus differing from those books intended for a similar purpose, which we have met with, makes the "Sequel" a useful addition to the list of school-books.

So far as we have attended to the subject, we have been led to think with Mr. Worcester, that, in the spelling-books in common use, "the understanding is left almost wholly unexercised. Scholars thus form habits of committing their lessons to memory with very little reflection, the injurious influence of which is afterwards felt in higher but not more important elementary studies."

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**NOTE TO THE REVIEW OF BRYANT'S POEMS IN NO. IV. —**  
After the last number of our Journal was printed, and before it was published, we read an article in the **AMERICAN QUARTERLY REVIEW**, touching the character of "Bryant's Poems," which stands unrivalled and alone in the whole annals of criticism. The only way in which we can account for this anomalous and unexampled production, is, that the reviewers had in reserve something which they thought very fine about the poets of New England, founded on the worthless writings of its humblest bards, and placed the title of Mr. Bryant's book at the beginning, and a few remarks upon it towards the close (which they were exceedingly puzzled to know how to adapt to the tenor of their elaborate and cherished performance), and thus they thought to give to the whole an air of greater consequence. This is the most charitable hypothesis, though we will not urge it in order to get to the bottom of a mystery, which perhaps is too deep for us to fathom.

The article of which we speak is entitled "**American Lake Poetry**"; and the poems of Willis and Bryant are the works purporting to be reviewed. The "**American Lake Poetry**" is described to be the degenerate offspring of the "**Lake Poetry**" of England; which last, according to the summary description of the reviewers, — "dispenses with all arrangement of subject, all natural adaptation of thought, all distinctness of expression, and regularity of versification." But our poets, "the Lake, or, to Americanize the term, the New-England school," it seems, are a degenerate issue; they ape "the very worst peculiarities" of their sires. "They have in consequence, filled their compositions with epithets without meaning, and sentiment without pathos. They are careless without ease, and laborious without showing polish. Their decorations are tawdry, and impart no elegance to their diction. Their versification is in general sluggish, and often intolerably rugged." After a little more of this easy, graceful strain of antithesis, and beautiful specimen of English idiom, the Reviewers, with great agony, give up to a hopeless condition, Willis and Bryant, and any others who "in this lowest deep" may reach "a lower deep"; and thus sagely mark out their own course: "We, at present, attempt the ungracious task of showing where those [Willis and Bryant], whose works we

### *Note to the Review of Bryant's Poems.*

have made the subject of this article, have gone astray, not so much with the view of bringing them into the right path—which we deem would be vain labor—as for the purpose of preventing others from following them. We will [shall] hold up their works as beacons by which future pilgrims, on the path to poetical fame, may be warned to avoid the snares into which they have fallen, too deeply, we fear, ever to rise again, and become disentangled from their error.”

Such then are the “Lake School” of England, as the archetype, and the “New-England School,” the copy, disgracing even its miserable origin. Here Bryant has his bad eminence. These are the *schools* which have been examined by the Reviewers with such liberality and thorough penetration,—in which they have found nothing to approve. They have written idler, dunce, and blockhead, against the names of masters and pupils, threatened to destroy their fabrics, and set up another school, or at any rate to “hold up their works as *beacons*,” to be kindled, it should seem, into flame by those who hold them up thus generously, albeit they should burn their own fingers. “The *beacon* of the wise,” is “modest doubt.”

We have already in the preceding number of this Journal given a full expression of our opinion respecting Mr. Bryant's poems, and we shall not be so wanting in respect towards him, or to ourselves, or to the good city of Philadelphia, or to the public, as to make a studied reply to the criticism, if it may be so called, which we have now exposed to view, so far as we could do it in a very condensed form. Is this critical effort the result of fanaticism, or spleen, or of the inaptitude of those whom the “gods have not made poetical,” for the task which they undertook? It has not heat enough perhaps for fanaticism, nor acrimony enough for spleen unmixed, nor obtuseness enough for total depravity of the poetic sense; and therefore it may be the result of these elements mingled and combined.

The Reviewers have been bountiful in their selections from Willis, but they strangely forgot that they had promised to present some passages of Bryant before their readers, in order to show that he has none of the qualities of a good poet, of one who “commands attention, gains the favor of his readers, and insures for himself an honorable fame.” When the fit occasion offers, they change their minds. And

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why do they make no extracts from Bryant's volume? "For the sole reason," as they say, "that it contains but little that we can severely condemn, and less, perhaps, that we can warmly praise." It is then that middling kind of poetry miscalled, which neither gods nor men, least of all, these reviewers, can tolerate. Thus it is to the end of the chapter, saving that they select several lines, out of which they mark a few words in which the poet compresses three syllables into two, for which words they kindly provide substitutes and emendations. Now, if instead of saying, You are dull, indifferent, prosaic, common-place, verbose, Mr. Bryant, — they had said, We do not feel with you, we cannot go along with you, we do not understand you, Mr. Bryant; — we should know how to account for their embarrassment, and they would have been saved from much painful effort, from inconsistency, and a deal of rambling discourse.

There is another thing which occasioned great embarrassment to the reviewers: they had ascertained in some way, beyond our ability to explain, — whether by poetical or some other kind of inspiration, or by oracles or prophecies of former times, they can best affirm, — but so it was, that they had learned to their own satisfaction the geographical boundaries of poetical genius, and that it had no dwelling place in this Western world, east of the Hudson. This fact, as we might well imagine, they repose and enlarge upon with a good deal of complacency, such as flows from exclusive knowledge, or knowledge possessed in common only by a few. Hence it is readily perceived how they could find no poetic inspiration in Bryant, though he was born and bred in a region of mountains and valleys, cultivated and wild, picturesque and sublime, which, if the Hudson had not been Nature's eastern boundary of poetic genius in this hemisphere, might have operated on a cultivated mind, have raised it from the sensible to the moral, from the love of natural beauty and sublimity, to refinement and sublimity of thought, — the true inspiration of nature's God.

The fact being thus well ascertained and clearly announced that there are no poets east of the Hudson, we conclude that it is meant to be implied that there are such personages west and south of that river of new fame and properties. On this subject we shall probably be enlightened hereafter.

## LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

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*The Domestic Chemist; comprising Instructions for the Detection of Adulteration in Numerous Articles employed in Domestic Economy, Medicine, and the Arts. To which are subjoined, the Art of Detecting Poisons in Food and Organic Mixtures; and a Popular Introduction to the Principles of Chemical Analysis. Illustrated by Engravings on Wood.\** 18mo. pp. 340. London. 1831.

WE have heard little of late of "the march of intellect," and in none of the erudite treatises or lectures that we have read or heard, have we been advised of *all* the great improvements and aids to the attainment of an elevated rank among philosophers which are now within reach. Those who have attained this elevation are, we fear, not so liberal as they should be in conformity with the "spirit of the age." It may be owing, however, to the velocity which has been acquired. Some years ago the progressive steps could be counted; but now, unless a man become a natural philosopher, an astronomer, or a chemist, by double-quick-time, equalled only by the progression of a Liverpool locomotive, he is a dolt and a blunderhead. A science which, at the close of the eighteenth century, was thought to require for its attainment the drudgery of days and nights of application, is to be mastered in an hour, in a "Why and Because," in a "Scientific Tract," or in a Lyceum lecture.

We read in some of our musty folios of the smell of the lamp; this was prior to the introduction of gas lights; these have already rendered stars unnecessary to some modern astronomers. The time seems near when the names of Newton and Laplace will be quoted to mark the snail pace of science, and the hebetude of intellect, which once required the aid of a long tube, then called a telescope, wherewith to look at the moon!

The royal road to learning seems at length to have been discovered, and the labor-saving machinery of science to have been brought to the utmost perfection. The old lady has been made to doff her antiquated and repulsive garb, and to invest herself with all the attractions of a fashionable beauty. Rattles and go-carts, dolls and skip-jacks, are banished from the nursery and have become an essential part of the apparatus of philosophy. It is not to be supposed that these influences

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\* Our reasons for noticing this publication more at length than the plan of this Journal contemplates, will appear in the course of our remarks.

and improvements are to be limited in their effects to science. The mastery of all the sciences, about the age of six, will render new objects necessary to engage the mind, and literature will then come in for its share of attention. Ripe scholars will begin to be turned out by machinery; schools, colleges, and libraries will not be wanted, and the child's "first book" will be Shakspeare or Milton. Homer and Virgil will be the standard nursery authors, and learned lecturers will expound the more erudite tomes of "Mother Goose" and "Goody Two-Shoes," in the original Greek to assembled crowds.

The condensation of the gases has not yet been so applied as to produce any important practical results in the arts, but advantage has been taken of the discovery of Mr. Faraday, in the application of the principle to science. Of an experiment of this kind we have an instance in the "Domestic Chemist." It is the second volume of a series of works now publishing in London under the title of the "Polytechnic Library." The design of this publication, the "whys and becauses" are freely set forth in the prospectus. The series is to consist of "highly instructive works," which the public are to be "tempted to buy, because they will be cheap, — be induced to read, because they will be brief, — be competent to understand, because they will be clearly written, — and be able to profit by, because they will be works of practical utility." The "Domestic Chemist" is the only specimen of these "highly instructive works" we have seen; but the gallantry of the publishers far exceeds that of any of the "Library" makers of this library-making age, for there is one volume "nearly ready for publication," in which all the arcana of the toilet are to be revealed, — powders, pomatums, and essences, extracts and elixirs, odoriferous waters and toilette soaps, vinegars, cosmetics and dyes for the hair, are all to be described in the most philosophical manner according to chemical principles "investigated" — not by Sir Humphrey Davy, but by philosophers of the more modern "why and because" school, — to wit, "the Parisian perfumers."

Nor are our merchants and tradesmen to be forgotten; one volume is to comprise the "art of book-keeping, particularly adapted for those who have never studied the principles of book-keeping." Another will no doubt teach the higher mathematics without the knowledge of arithmetic, logarithms, or algebra.

The "Domestic Chemist" is manufactured with imperfect and partial extracts from Dr Christison's valuable "Treatise on Poisons," and the elaborate work of Rose on "Analysis," with a few plagiarisms from Mr. Faraday's "Manipulation." There is occasionally a reference to these works; but page after page is introduced without any acknowledgment. It is a book which any one might have made who had never seen a retort or a crucible.

The book was not wanted; to the chemist who can fill up the meagre sketches of processes, and supply from his own resources the deficiencies, it may sometimes be convenient, but to the greater number of readers it will be useless. To some it may not prove entirely harmless; it may fill the timid with imaginary fears, and lead to the wish that they had been born to eat of the chameleon's dish. The old stories of poisoned cheese, sanded sugar, medicated beer, bread of

bone-ashes and pipe-clay stare us in the face at almost every page; and death is no longer imprisoned in the porridge-pot, but pops his head from the pudding-bag, and bounces upon us from the bottom of a champagne bottle.

The "Domestic Chemist" professes to be "a barricade against the cupidity of fraudulent tradesmen, and to put it in every man's power to ensure his health and wealth against the ravages of adulteration and disease." The stolen materials with which this "barricade" has been built up, have been chipped and hammered and made to fit tolerably well, but the cement is of a loose texture and will do no credit to the engineer. As a specimen; "The fulminations of the legislature are here of small avail," viz. in preventing the adulteration of beer, "for acts of parliament have but little power in comparison with chemical tests. It is to the operations of the laboratory, and not to the proceedings of St. Stephen's Chapel, that the public must look for protection against the beer-doctors."

We have found mention made of but one manufactory, which we are led to infer produces pure articles, and even this our author would have brought up to the spirit of the age; "I wish," says he, "that it were possible to adulterate the wisdom of Parliament with a little common sense or elementary knowledge." He professes to have tested several times "to find whether the wisdom of Parliament" did contain any common sense, "but was never able to detect it"

We shall, doubtless, soon see a proposal to republish this series of "highly instructive works" in this country; let our life-insurance companies, our doctors and druggists, look to it in season or prepare to shut up shop, as every man, woman, and child, at something less than one dollar, will be able to "ensure health and wealth, and be protected in person and property from the machinations of demons" by purchasing the "Domestic Chemist,"—for thus promises the author.

Our chemist is hard upon the ruddy cooks and fair housewives of England, and upon their shoulders would lay the burden of being, in no small degree, the promoters of intemperance in the community. While he gives them all due honor for their attention to "roast beef and plumb puddings, to cow heels and calves' heads," in noticing a specific against the vice we have named he most ungallantly continues, "In the preparation of coffee they show themselves as if they were newly caught savages set to perform the functions of cooking animals for the first time. I think," he continues, "it is much to be regretted that the art of making good coffee is not more generally valued and practised among us. If the stupid ringleaders of the useless 'temperance societies' would do something to put people into the way of getting and drinking good coffee, instead of preaching long sermons to them about the benefits derivable from sipping wine, their labors would have a clear and rational object. I will tell my countrywomen what they should do to keep their husbands from the grog-shop; they should teach themselves to make good coffee. A man would often take *that* at home, rather than more potent liquors abroad. I say *good* coffee, and mean thereby something different from a sort of wash fit only to be given to hogs to swallow, but which is nevertheless served up as a delicate beverage by many an English [and American] house-

wife to her unfortunate family. Good and strong coffee, made from berries which have been roasted and ground the same day, is an exceedingly exhilarating liquor, while poor, weak, slopped coffee does nothing but breed the blue-devils. A man would be a fool to resign his gin-and-water for this stuff; and the women are thoroughly foolish to expect them to do so. Let the latter begin by holding out to their husbands some temptation to stay at home to drink."—pp. 141, 142.

The third part of this volume comprises the art of chemical analysis in about sixty pages. This is the best part of the book, but is nevertheless got up in the usual superficial style of "popular" performances. It is made up of unacknowledged extracts chiefly from the "Chemical Manipulation of Mr. Faraday. We do not recollect, however, that the able successor of Davy and Brande, recommends the use of an "edulcorator" formed of a bottle having its mouth closed by a cork through which a tube is passed, the liquid in which is to be expelled upon the precipitate to be washed, by blowing into the tube, the bottle being inverted. There is no doubt of the correctness of the remark, that the contents "will be expelled with considerable force," to which should have been added,—into the face and eyes of the operator.

The outlines of processes and the directions to beginners, so far as they go, are well enough, but they are too imperfect to be of much value.

#### HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

SINCE the first of September, 1831, there have been added to the Library of Harvard College 1225 volumes, and 212 pamphlets or tracts, not including periodical publications. The above additions consist of 798 independent works. During this period there have been presented 429 volumes, and 147 pamphlets.

The following list includes a few of the more important works.

Armenian Works—16 volumes, printed at Venice. Among these is a version of Milton's *Paradise Lost*.

Champollion (le jeune). *Panthéon Égyptien*. 4to. 15 livraisons, with colored plates.

Clair et Clapier. *Le Barreau Français*. 16 vols. 8vo.

*Encyclopædia Metropolitana*. 12 vols. 4to.

Herder's *Sammlichte Werke; zur Religion, Philosophie, und Literatur*. 45 vols. 8vo.

Humboldt and Bonpland. *Work on the Equinoctial Regions of America; with splendid Plates*. Folio and quarto.

Krusenstern. *Voyage autour du Monde*. 2 vols. 8vo. With an Atlas. folio. Paris. 1821.

Nepos. *Opera*. Ed. Mussius. 1 vol. fol. Mediolani. 1807.

Sallustius. *Opera*. Ed. Mussius. 2 vols. fol. Mediolani. 1813.

Skinner. *Etymologicon Ling. Ang.* fol. 1671.

Thwaites. *Heptateuchus, Liber Job, et Evangelium Nicodemi, in Anglo-Sax.; et Historiæ Judith Fragmentum, in Dano-Sax.* 8vo. 1696.

## LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS,

FOR APRIL, 1832.

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### *Carey & Lea, Philadelphia.*

A Historical Inquiry into the Production and Consumption of the Precious Metals. By William Jacobs, Esq. 8vo.

A Geological Manual. By Henry F. De La Beche. 8vo.

Life of Belisarius. By Lord Mahon. 12mo.

The Life of Napoleon Bonaparte. By M. de Bourrienne, his Private Secretary. 8vo.

Surgical Memoirs of the Campaigns of Russia, Germany, and France. By Baron D. I. Larey. Translated from the French, by John C. Mercer. 8vo.

Salmonia, or Days of Fly-Fishing. By an Angler. 12mo.

A Preliminary Dissertation of the Mechanism of the Heavens. By Mrs. Somerville. 18mo.

Treatise on the Silk Manufacture. 12mo.

The Select Works of Henry Fielding. 2 vols. 8vo.

Encyclopædia Americana. Vol. 9.

### *Carey & Hart, Philadelphia.*

Catechism of Facts respecting Cholera. By A. B. Granville. 18mo.

Reflections of Every Day of the Week, with Occasional Thoughts, &c. By Catherine Talbot. 48mo.

A Whisper to a Newly Married Pair from a Widowed Wife. 18mo.

### *Nicklin & Johnson, Philadelphia.*

The Office and Duty of Executors, by T. Wentworth. With References, by E. D. Ingraham. 8vo.

### *James Crissy, Philadelphia.*

The Life of George Washington, Commander in Chief of the American Forces. By John Marshall. Revised and corrected by the Author. 2d edition. 2 vols. 8vo.

Atlas to Marshall's Life of Washington. 8vo.

### *Latimer & Co., Philadelphia.*

The Listener. By C. Fry. 2 vols. 12mo.

A Practical Compendium of Midwifery, being the Course of Lectures on Midwifery and on the Diseases of Women and Infants, delivered at the St. Bartholomew Hospital. By the late Robert Gooch, M. D. 8vo.



*J. & J. Harper, New York.*

Romance of History. Italy. By Charles Macfarlane. 2 vols. 12mo.

The Letters of the British Spy. By William Wirt, Esq. With a Biographical Sketch of the Author. 10th edition. 12mo.

Lives and Voyages of Early Navigators, with a History of the Bucaniers. 18mo.

The Works of the Rev. Robert Hall, A. M. Vol. 1. 8vo.

*O. Halsted, New York.*

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Superior Court of the City of New York. By J. P. Hall, Counsellor at Law. 8vo.

*Ebenezer Mason, New York.*

The Writings of the late John M. Mason, D. D. 4 vols. 8vo.

*J. Leavitt, New York.*

Considerations for Young Men. 12mo.

*Collins & Hannay, New York.*

Lempriere's Classical Dictionary. 8vo.

*W. & A. Gould, & Co., Albany.*

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Supreme Court of Judicature of the State of New York. By John Wendell, Counsellor at Law.

*J. W. Judd, Hartford.*

Connecticut Reports. Vol. 8. Part 1 of Vol. 8. Part 1 of New Series, containing the Decisions of 1830. By Thomas Day. 8vo.

*Durrie & Peck, New Haven.*

The Child's Book on the Creation. By the Rev. C. A. Goodrich. 18ma.

*Hilliard, Gray, & Co., Boston.*

Poems. By Miss H. F. Gould. 18mo.

Visitor of the Poor. By Baron Degerando. Translated by a Lady of Boston. 12mo.

*Gray & Bowen, Boston.*

A Memoir of Miss Hannah Adams. Written by Herself. 12mo.

Mr. Greenwood's Sermon at the Installation of the Rev. J. W. Thompson.

*Moore & Sevey, Boston.*

Secrecy, a Poem, pronounced at the Installation of the Boston Encampment of Knights Templars, February 28, 1832. By Thomas Power.

An Address delivered before the Boston Encampment of Knights Templars. By Paul Dean.

*Stimpson & Clapp, Boston.*

Working-Man's Companion. — The Results of Machinery, viz. Cheap Production and Cheap Employment Exhibited, being an Address to the Working-Men of the United Kingdom. 12mo.

The American Library of Useful Knowledge. Vol. 5; containing Universal History. Vol. 2. 12mo.

*Lilly & Wait, Boston.*

Notes on the State of Virginia. By Thomas Jefferson. 12mo.  
 Cooper on Dislocation. A new edition from the latest London edition. 8vo.  
 Knowledge for the People, or the Plain Why and Because. No. 2, containing Zoology. 18mo.

*Crocker & Brewster, Boston.*

The French First Class Book, being a new Selection of Reading Lessons. In Four Parts. 12mo.  
 The Pilgrim's Progress; with a Life of Bunyan, by Robert Southey. 12mo.  
 Saturday Evening. By the Author of "The Natural History of Enthusiasm." 12mo.

*Carter & Hendee, Boston.*

First Book of the Fine and Useful Arts; for the Use of Schools and Lyceums. Compiled by M. S. Perry, M. D. 12mo.  
 Contemplations of the Saviour. By S. G. Bulfinch. 12mo.  
 A Third Book for Reading and Spelling. By S. Worcester. 12mo.  
 Santo Sebastiano, or the Young Protector. By the Author of the "Romance of the Pyrenees. 12mo.  
 A Treatise on Shades and Shadows and Linear Perspective. By Charles Davies.  
 Report of the Case of Alleged Contempt and Breach of the Privileges of the House of Representatives of Massachusetts; Tried before the House on Complaint of W. B. Calhoun, Speaker, against D. L. Child. 8vo.  
 Moll Pitcher, a Poem. 8vo.

*S. H. Parker, Boston.*

Waverley Novels. Revised Edition. Peveril of the Peak. 2 vols. 12mo.

*Lincoln & Edmands, Boston.*

North American Arithmetic. Part 2d. 12mo.

*Pierce & Parker, Boston.*

Memoirs and Confessions of F. W. Reinhard, S. T. D. 12mo.

*Hilliard & Brown, Cambridge.*

Resolves, Divine, Moral, Political. By Owen Feltham. 12mo.  
 The Combination against Intemperance Explained and Justified. By Henry Ware, jun. 8vo.  
 Memoirs of John Frederick Oberlin, Pastor of Waldbach, in the Ban De La Roche. From the Third London Edition. With an Introduction by the American Editor. 16mo.

THE  
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ART. I.— *The History of New Hampshire*, by JEREMY BELKNAP, D. D., &c. From a Copy of the Original Edition, having the Author's last Corrections; to which are added *Notes, containing various Corrections and Illustrations of the Text, and additional Facts and Notices of Persons and Events therein mentioned*; by JOHN FARMER, Corresponding Secretary of the New Hampshire Historical Society. Vol. I. Dover. S. C. Stevens and Ela & Wadleigh. 1831. 8vo. pp. 512.

WE are happy in the belief that a fondness for historical pursuits is rapidly gaining ground amongst us, and that the early history of our own country is gathering to it a degree of interest bearing some just proportion to its importance and value. This however is but a late love. Many of our readers well recollect the time when American history was a *terra incognita* to our scholars. And this ignorance was more than winked at. Our men of learning would relate with minute accuracy the fabulous stories of the elder nations. They would tell of the foundation of Carthage; of the origin of the Grecian and Roman States, and of the wars they successively carried on; and would be very Plutarchs in their acquaintance with the biography of distinguished men. But ask them of the early history of our colonies, of the sufferings they encountered, of the principles for which they contended, of the great and good men they produced, and we should receive but little accession of light. We should be told that though our history might be rich in incident, it was meagre in writers, while our definite origin shut

out all the beautiful creations of imagination and poetry ; as if invention possessed any thing in common with history. Let fable and romance have their appropriate field in poetry and works of fiction with whatever delights and fascinations they may bring ; but let them not enter the sober precincts of history, and confound fact and fancy. These aids are worse than useless ; they are pernicious.

If we have no history that may serve for a model in its kind, — none written in classic phrase and in a philosophical spirit like Tacitus or Hume, we have those which possess interest in themselves without adventitious circumstances, — rich, authentic, and instructive. Our history begins with enlightened man in an enlightened period of the world, and describes the difficulties and dangers, the character, sufferings, and triumphs, of a peculiar people.

But the love of country is concerned in this matter ; and by this we are far from meaning simply a manifestation of interest for a certain extent of land and water. The idea of country is complex. It embraces the place of our birth and of our early and fond associations ; the place of our education and of the active duties of life ; of our enjoyments and sufferings. It is mixed up with the love and progress of literature, science, and morals, with the advance of wealth and population, and the hearty support of good institutions. It attaches itself to the scenery around, to the forest and waterfall, to the river and mountain and the broad valley ; to living man in all the hopes and improvements of his social condition ; to the memory of our fathers, and their worthy deeds ; to their joys and sorrows, and to the very graves in which they sleep. It kindles within us in childhood, and burns intensely to the close of life.

Dr. Belknap's "*History of New Hampshire*" has been for many years before the public, and probably a fair and just estimate has been formed of its merits. The work, however, we believe, never received any notice in a periodical journal, except in the old "*Massachusetts Magazine*," forty years since. We, therefore, take this opportunity of a new edition to say a few words of the work itself. The period embraced in this history is from the first planting of a colony on the banks of the Piscataqua in the Spring of 1623, to the year 1791. And the author in the course of his progress introduces portions of more general history, so far as they are connected with his principal design.

The success of an early settlement in a new country depends not only upon the character of the adventurers, but also upon the objects they have in view. The early colonists in New Hampshire were not men of much consideration. Edward and William Hilton, who settled at Dover, were fish-mongers of London. The other company, composed of no higher class, was established at Little Harbour, near the mouth of the river Piscataqua. The main objects of the undertaking were the fisheries, the salt-works, and the discovery of the lakes and mines. There was nothing, therefore, to bind them intimately to the soil, and to give them an enduring interest in the country. Agriculture was but little attended to, and was altogether subsidiary to other pursuits. Indeed, for the first ten years "bread was either brought from England in meal, or from Virginia in grain, and then sent to the wind-mill at Boston." But in Massachusetts, where the cultivation of the soil was the great employment of the inhabitants, and where the colony contained an unusual proportion of men of education and comparative wealth, the increments in property, population, enterprise, learning, and consequently public strength, were rapid and vigorous. The free enjoyment of their own religious faith was the *motive*, the *cause*, of their leaving the parent country and here planting themselves; and the church and school-house immediately sprang up side by side.

For seventeen years the little settlements in New Hampshire struggled with numerous difficulties. The few towns comprising the whole colony were under distinct governments within themselves, formed by voluntary agreement, and therefore of uncertain continuance, and possessing no one principle of strength or union. The more considerate inhabitants, aware of the feeble nature of their respective governments and their liableness to speedy dissolution, were desirous of treating with their more powerful neighbour, Massachusetts, and finally succeeded in 1641 in placing their towns under her jurisdiction. This union between the two colonies lasted nearly forty years. It was of great advantage to New Hampshire in giving her a strong and willing ally for defence in the Indian wars, and entitling her to all the benefits of the colonial confederacy of 1643, and of the political and religious institutions of Massachusetts. It secured to both friendly intercourse and mutual aid, and would

doubtless have continued much longer, even to the Revolution, had the feelings and interests of the people been regarded. But through the intrigues of Mason, who claimed the proprietorship of New Hampshire by virtue of the royal grant to his grandfather, King Charles the Second was induced to erect the Colony into a distinct province; and it ever after remained separate from Massachusetts, with the exception of a short period after the tyranny of Andros was overthrown.

A fruitful source of trouble to the colony and of prevention to its growth and prosperity may readily be found in the claim of Mason and his successors, patentees under the crown to the lands in that colony. The early patents were generally indefinite in the extent of country granted westward from the Atlantic, and frequently to an equal degree in their northern and southern boundaries; nor could it well be otherwise in the universal ignorance that then prevailed touching the geography of the northern continent.

The river Piscataqua was discovered by Captain John Smith, who sailed along the shore from Penobscot to Cape Cod in 1614, and made a map of the coast, which we confess to be one of the greatest curiosities of the kind we ever saw, and know not well how to describe it. In 1621, Captain John Mason, a merchant in London, procured from the Plymouth Company in England a grant of all the land from the river of Naumkeag (Salem) round Cape Anne to the Merrimack; with a west line running from the head of the one river to the head of the other. This was called *Mariana*. The following year a grant was made to Mason and Sir Ferdinando Gorges of all the lands between the rivers Merrimack and Sagadahoc, extending back to the great lakes and river of Canada. This was called *Laconia*. It was under this last grant that the settlements were made at Piscataqua.

In 1629 Mason obtained another grant of all the lands between the Merrimack and the Piscataqua, and extending sixty miles into the country. Much more than this, as has just been remarked, had been previously granted to Mason and Gorges; and it is difficult to account for the new patent, unless we adopt the conclusion that it was intended as an equivalent for the patent of *Mariana*, which the year before had been granted to Massachusetts, and that it was agreed between Cradock, the first Governor of the latter colony, and

Mason, that the bounds of Massachusetts should be three miles north of the Merrimack, and that the remaining lands to the Piscataqua should be taken to belong to Mason's patent, which was called New Hampshire. The whole of this territory was reserved to Mason when, in 1635, the Council at Plymouth, fearing that their charter would be taken away, resigned it into the hands of the king.

Under this last reservation Mason founded a claim to the territory of New Hampshire, most injurious to its prosperity, and the occasion of a wearisome and protracted dispute. Mason died in 1635, and by his last will gave this estate in entail to his grandson, John Tufton, who was to take the surname of Mason. The settlement at Newichwannock was abandoned by his widow a few years after as an unprofitable speculation. A part of the land at Newichwannock was afterwards recovered by J. Tufton Mason in a suit against the tenant; but the family being of the royal party no attempt was made to recover any other part of the territory till after the restoration of Charles the Second. In the mean time the number and wealth of the inhabitants upon the *debatable land* had considerably increased. Opinions were repeatedly given by the crown officers in England in favor of his title, and finally, in 1679, New Hampshire was made a distinct province by the king, principally, if not wholly, that he might direct the trials and appeals in Mason's claims at his pleasure, apart from the Massachusetts courts. Mason accordingly came over to the province, assumed the title of Lord Protector, and endeavoured to collect rents and compel the people to take leases from him. But at every turn he met with new difficulties, and in some instances with open resistance. The tenants had been in possession some fifty years, under fair purchases from the Indians, and were not of a temper to yield quietly to the imperious demand of the claimant. Finding all his attempts thus far unsuccessful, he commenced a suit against one of the principal inhabitants in 1683, in a court *packed* for the purpose by his partisan and creature Governor Cranfield, and, with the aid of an interested and *packed* jury, obtained a verdict in his favor. After this, many other suits were instituted against the principal landholders, who made no resistance in court, well aware that it would be ineffectual. "The jury," says Belknap, "never hesitated in their verdicts. From seven to

twelve causes were despatched in a day, and the costs were multiplied from five to twenty pounds. Executions were issued, of which two or three only were levied; but Mason could neither keep possession of the premises nor dispose of them by sale; so that the owners still enjoyed them. Several of them threatened to appeal to the king, but Major Vaughan alone made the experiment." p. 102.

Vaughan's appeal was decided against him by James the Second of arbitrary memory. But the court in New Hampshire suddenly becoming jealous of the large territory, that seemed now to be already within the grasp of Mason, delayed issuing executions. He obtained a writ of *certiorari* from Chief Justice Dudley for the removal of the causes to the Superior Court then held at Boston for both governments, but his sudden death in 1688, and the Revolution in that year, for a time checked all further proceedings.

In 1691, his sons and heirs John and Robert Mason, weary probably of this hereditary litigation, sold all their interest in the province to Samuel Allen, a London merchant. The new purchaser, on examining the records of the court, found that twenty-four leaves were missing, in which it was supposed the judgments recovered by Mason were recorded. This novel mode of abridging a work was to be sure somewhat of a damper; but Allen persisted in his claim, and brought a suit against one of the largest landholders to try his title. The cause was given in favor of the defendant. Allen appealed to the king, and judgment was again given against him, on the ground that there was no evidence of Mason's possession. He then petitioned the king to be put in possession of the waste land; this petition was granted, and embraced as *waste* all *unenclosed* and *unoccupied* land, within as well as without the bounds of settled towns. He again sued and was again unsuccessful. He next attempted to compromise with the Assembly, and certain terms were stated by them, which would probably have been satisfactory on all sides; but his sudden death the day after the articles of settlement were presented to him (1705) prevented so desirable an issue.

In 1706 and 1707, his son, Thomas Allen of London, made a last and determined effort to establish his title to this large territory, that was every year increasing in value. He renewed the action brought by his father. Both parties pre-



pared for the trial with great industry, and the cause was managed on both sides with zeal and ability. It was a matter of intense interest to the public on the one hand and to the claimant on the other. After a full hearing the jury found a verdict in favor of the defendant. Allen appealed to the Queen in Council, and the appeal was allowed. "But," says Belknap, "the loyalty of the people, and the distresses under which they labored by reason of the war, prevailed on the queen's ministry to suspend a final decision; and before the appeal could be heard, Allen's death, which happened in 1715, put an end to the suit, which his heirs, being minors, did not renew." p. 166.

The sale by John and Robert Mason to Allen in 1691, having been made in England, it was supposed by some that the breaking the entail there for the purpose of making that sale was of no validity, for, the lands being in New Hampshire, the English courts could have no jurisdiction of the matter. Accordingly John Tufton Mason, a grandson of Robert, suffered a recovery in the courts of New Hampshire by which the entail was doctored, and he obtained the right of selling his interest. He finally sold, in 1746, all his title to several of the principal gentlemen in the province, who were anxious to see an end of this perplexing business. The grantees relinquished all claim to the towns which had been settled and granted within the limits of their purchase, and by adopting a very liberal policy in their grants of new townships in the province, they obtained great popularity. The heirs of Allen, it is true, threatened to molest them; but the latter, having consulted council both here and in England, were satisfied that their own title was valid.

Thus after a period of nearly one hundred years, after long and bitter altercation and much real distress, this controversy was brought to a close; for no farther attempt was made by Allen's heirs to revive their claim.

There are many other interesting points in the history of New Hampshire. The question of boundary was long unsettled, and Massachusetts, partly by claiming too much of the territory north of the Merrimack, and partly through the jealousy with which she was always regarded by the English government, except during the protectorate of Cromwell, lost a large tract of land to which she was fairly entitled; while New Hampshire, on the other hand, obtained more than

she ever expected, or even asked. The grants made by Governor Benning Wentworth west of Connecticut river, and to within twenty miles of the Hudson, and which were known by the name of the New Hampshire Grants, were the occasion of severe discussion between that government and New York. The inhabitants of the contested territory, which now constitutes the State of Vermont, for a long time strove to constitute themselves a distinct political community, and to embrace many towns to the east of the Connecticut river, belonging to New Hampshire; and it was not until after a state of almost open war with the latter province, and after mutual encroachments, that the jurisdiction on either side was settled and limited, and Vermont was brought into the confederacy.

Like the other provinces, New Hampshire suffered from a wretched paper currency, bills of credit, tender laws, &c.; which did so much to embarrass and impoverish the whole country. But a youthful and vigorous people will grow and flourish despite of every obstacle. They may be depressed awhile; bad institutions and bad laws may injure, but cannot crush them; they will always recover at last by their own elasticity.

From other causes frequent calamity visited this province. Her sea-coast was narrow and comparatively barren, and she had not strength to push her population to the fertile lands in the interior till nearly a century after the first settlement. For a long period Dover and Durham were frontier towns; and there was no division into counties till 1771. The Indian was about her path and spread desolation on every side, and occasioned probably more suffering and death in proportion to the population, than in the neighbouring province of Massachusetts. But her sons were hardy, brave, and enterprising, and ever ready to meet the savage enemy in the numerous conflicts that took place. They were distinguished in the expeditions against Canada, at the siege of Louisbourg, and in the war of the Revolution, for vigor and courage, and bore their full share with willing hearts in the defence of their country.

We are glad to see a new edition of Dr. Belknap's "*History*." The author has always been a favorite with us for his catholic spirit, and his historical impartiality. His narrative is excellent, and his disquisitions and reflections are

always well timed and never break the continuity of his relation. His delineations of character are forcible and judicious, and, while marked with the strictness of truth, impress the reader with the benevolence of the character of the author himself. It is a great merit of his style, that in reading we seldom think of it, but are carried along by the interest of the story. The attention is not called to censure a slovenly or inaccurate, nor an ambitious or inflated style. When a writer makes you forget his style, it cannot be very faulty. Dr. Belknap never seems to think of it himself, while it possesses great simplicity and strength. He leads us along pleasant paths, where nothing is sterile, nothing rank, but every thing is pleasant to the eye.

The present volume contains the whole of the original history, together with the last corrections of the venerable author, and several valuable papers that were added by him to the Appendix. The editor, John Farmer, Esq., was fortunate enough to obtain this corrected copy from John Belknap, Esq. of Boston, a son of the historian. Mr. Farmer has added three papers of historical interest, and has made divers corrections throughout the work.\* His Notes are numerous, full, and to the purpose. He has well executed all and more than all he promised. It is fortunate that the undertaking fell into such competent hands. All who have seen his, excellent "Gazetteer of New Hampshire," and other useful works that he has prepared, and his numerous contributions to the history of the country, will be very ready to commend the extent of his antiquarian lore, his great industry, his sound judgment, and the ardor and success of his investigations. We sincerely hope that he will find encouragement to continue the history, and that he will give to the public another volume, which we understand has for some time been in preparation, together with a Map of New Hampshire, and a copious Index to the whole work.

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\* We are reminded that there should be one addition to the list, in the Appendix, of the public officers of the Province, viz. that of Sir John Temple, who was appointed Lieutenant Governor of New Hampshire in 1761, arrived in Portsmouth in January, 1762, published his commission, and took the oaths of office.

ART. II. — *A Manual of Medical Jurisprudence, compiled from the best Medical and Legal Works; being an Analysis of a Course of Lectures on Forensic Medicine, annually delivered in London.* By MICHAEL RYAN, M. D., Member of the Royal College of Physicians in London, &c. First American Edition. With Notes and Additions, by R. EGLESFELD GRIFFITH, M. D., Lecturer on *Materia Medica* and Medical Jurisprudence in the Philadelphia School of Medicine. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea. 1832. 8vo. pp. 327.

THIS is rather a bulky "Manual"; and while reading it, the question often occurred to us, how it might have been put together so as to have answered the title better, and still to have been quite as useful as it is likely to be in its present dimensions. In answering this question, which we now propose to do, we shall have an opportunity to give our opinion of this volume, and state with sufficient distinctness what we hold that subject to be upon which it treats.

There are about three hundred pages in this book, and about one hundred of them are given to what is technically called Medical Ethics. We have much doubt whether the morality, or rather the immorality, of the medical calling deserves so much room as all this. Is there in truth any demand for this new code of morals? Does it not belong to good principle in any and every calling to show each and every member of the same what he should do and what he should forbear? And where good principle has place, and a fixed and large place too, will a code of laws keep men in the right way? We can never forget the remarks of one not of the profession of medicine, who by accident took up a volume of medical ethics, strangely named *Medical Police*. He was surprised, and uttered his astonishment in no weak measure, that it should ever for a moment have been thought necessary to bind a whole profession to such observances; as they seemed to belong necessarily to the very being of right thinking and right acting. And is it not a singular fact in the history of this enlightened, dignified, truly noble profession, that the sanctions of oaths and subscriptions should ever have been thought necessary to the well-being of its morality. The work of Percival, which is so frequently

referred to in this matter, was written under circumstances and for a purpose which distinguish it from works of which it is made the model. He began to write it for a son of extraordinary promise, who died before it was finished; and before he had resumed the labor, death again came into his family and added new poignancy to his sufferings. It was at length finished, in the hope, as the author expresses it, "that it may prove beneficial to another son, who has lately exchanged the pursuits of general science at Cambridge for the study of medicine at Edinburgh." This work of Percival, though afterwards enlarged and made to embrace some of the public duties of physicians, those, namely, which regard public health, and those which relate to the administration of public justice, — we say, this work originally was designed for an individual, a beloved son; and was strictly a part of the education of that son. The author was encouraged to add to, and to publish it, and it has been largely used by all who have since written on the subject. But the question recurs, Is it necessary in a work whose great purpose it is to give a physician some general views of his public professional duties, to fill more than a third of it with what he owes to his brethren? Do not the obligations of duty in the case of a liberal profession belong to something else than to a written code; and is it very likely that the individual would find them, or be governed by them, should we tell him to look for them in one?

We have another objection to the first part of this volume. It gives an account of the laws relating to the medical profession in England, and in the United States. The first might well have been omitted in the American reprint. And we question much the advantage of increasing the size of the volume by what is added on American medical law. It is very concise, indeed, but this makes it less useful; for if the knowledge in this regard be at all valuable, it can be so only by being complete. But we consider the addition out of place, and for the following reason. In almost every State of the Union, a society exists which enjoys by law the privilege of regulating medical practice; every regularly educated physician in each State may belong to such a society, and he learns immediately on his admission all that the law of the commonwealth has done for his profession. Now we hold that this is all he need know, and here he gets the knowledge in the readiest and most authentic manner.

The next seventy pages of the work treat of matters which cannot well be discussed in a popular journal. They are questions of physiology; of medical theory; of facts and doctrines which interest the physician, and form a part in every complete medical education. In answering the question with which we began, we may say of this part of the work, that it might have been advantageously shortened. It has a pretty large admixture of statute law in it, both foreign and domestic, and the American editor says, he would have enlarged on the latter, were it not that Dr. Beck is so full in his legal references. We think it well that he has said so little about this matter, whatever the reasons are; and in passing we cannot refrain from saying, that we have always thought Dr. Beck's truly valuable work is only encumbered by the elaborate digest he has given of the criminal law of the several States.

The next hundred pages treat of those medico-legal questions which relate to attempts against health or life. This is an important part of this and similar works. The student will not, however, understand its whole value, if he looks to this volume alone for what he is to do in the various emergencies which may call for his services. He is rather to learn from it what these occasions may be, whilst he must prepare for them by the study of the more extended works, the abler monographs, which are devoted to the most important questions on which he may be publicly consulted. Thus he must find in his perfect and full knowledge of the whole of the principles of surgery, and in all the details of actual cases, the preparation for his high function as a witness in alleged homicide by wounds, and all related means of violent death. And for cases of suspected poison, his preparation must be no less complete; which can be made only by a profound study and practice of analytical chemistry, and the truly philosophical application of all its methods as given in the thorough and admirable works of Orfila and Christison. The author and editor of this "Manual" refer to both of these writers, and quote largely from them. But how small a part of either do they or can they give us of voluminous works, emphatically practical, in the few pages of the "Manual" devoted to them. The physician may take up the volume for reference, but we exhort the student, if he would be faithful to the public, to his profession, or to himself, to

go to the fountain-head, the original sources of knowledge in this, as in all other cases. We know of no other safe or honorable road for him.

We have, in Chapter xvii, medico-legal questions relating to mental alienation. This is a short chapter; but most of its few pages are filled with law references and legal technicalities. All this we regard as quite out of place. What does the physician, the medical witness, learn of his public duties from the following, at page 286? "No traverse after the recovery of the insane." Or from this, at page 293? "Purchases and feofments by *non compos*, are not void, but voidable." Following this we have three short chapters on Feigned and Disqualifying Diseases, and on Age and Identity.

The twenty-first Chapter is entitled, Medical Evidence. This is short, but we regard it as the best chapter in the volume. Its purpose is to show what is the nature of professional evidence and testimony. To understand this is to make all the detail of public duty easy. The physician has before him his whole responsibility, and a wise check is placed upon the disposition natural to many men to exceed this. This is a department of medical jurisprudence, so named, that a physician is not obliged to study in order to an admission to practice. All its other departments belong to a regular medical education. To this then his attention should especially be directed, and, in this respect, Percival's "Medical Ethics," and especially Dr. John Gordon Smith's work on the "Analysis of Medical Evidence," deserve particular study. From this last work, Dr. Griffith, the American editor of Ryan's "Manual," has as largely borrowed as his limits would allow. We cannot but express our regret that he has not republished Smith's work, for with this and Beck's systematic treatise our literature on legal medicine would have been much more complete. We cannot but think also, that the medical public would bear an edition of Christison; the latest we would of course recommend, and, with this, we could hardly ask for more.

From what we have said, our opinion of the volume under review may be gathered, and more especially our views of its subject. The latter is resolved into the duties of a physician and their nature, when he is called upon to aid in the means of public health, and in evidence affecting life, character, or property. He is a *witness*; a witness of fact, and of the

reasonings which such fact may and does involve. It is as a physician that he is a witness, and he comes forward, or is called upon by the public, to tell what he has seen, in all its connexions with what he has before seen, studied, and reasoned upon. He has nothing to do with law, and he is to act as if there were to be no application of law to the matter at issue. He has nothing to do with what construction the law puts on human action, and with motive he has less concern. It is, we repeat it, as a physician, one profoundly learned in the construction of the human body; in all its functions, and these both healthful and morbid;—learned too in all the consequences of injuries, and in all the changes, the morbid changes, which poisonous substances may produce, and in the best received methods of detecting such poisons,—finally, acquainted with the appearances discoverable after death, let the circumstances which have produced, or preceded death, have been what they may;—it is in the character of a physician, prepared by this various knowledge, that he is a witness, and we welcome every attempt on the part of the medical profession to make this preparation complete. In closing our remarks on the volume before us, let it be understood that any objections we have entertained towards it, have been principally founded in the unnecessary length of what we regard as extraneous matter, in this and all similar works. This has taken up room which might, we think, have been much better filled. Dr. Griffith's additions, with the exceptions we have made, are very valuable, and give his edition a claim to the patronage of the profession in America. We could have wished that greater care had been bestowed on the more strictly mechanical execution of the volume. With our publishers the vulgar matters of paper, type, &c., are but small affairs it would seem, and expedition with them is more important than accuracy. A paragraph, however, would hardly remedy all this evil, and we have too little space, and too little time, to throw even the shortest one away.



ART. III. — *The Library of the Old English Prose Writers*. Vol. IV. *Résolves, Divine, Moral, Political*. By OWEN FELLTHAM. With some Account of the Author and his Writings. Cambridge. Hilliard & Brown. 1832. 16mo. pp. 316.

SCARCELY any thing is known of the life of this old Christian moralist. We have his folio of wit and wisdom, but the man is invisible. We do not say that he is withdrawn from the world, for there is hardly a hint of a world. He has left a few letters, and these are generally addressed to some initials, or to fancy names, to "a friend," or "a doctor of physic," without dates and almost without a fact that can serve any biographical purpose. A Dedication to the Countess Dowager of Thomond apprises us that most of his "*Résolves*," were "composed under the coverture of her roof"; and for the author's sake we should rejoice to know something of the patroness. Among his "*Occasional Pieces*" he has preserved a Latin epitaph upon his father's tomb in Cambridgeshire; and it is an invaluable memorial, for it tells us nearly all that is known with certainty of the family; — that the excellent man, Thomas Felltham, was born in Suffolk; that he left three sons and three daughters; that he died in 1631, at the age of sixty-two, and that Owen was the youngest of the sons. From his epitaph on himself we learn that he was alive at the Restoration. His "*Three Weeks' Observation of the Low Countries*," published in 1661, is said, in the title-page, to have been *written long since*, and that is the nearest approach to a date of the Travels; there is not a word of himself, but all is about the country and the people. We have looked over page after page of his writings in vain, for a modern name that might enable us to associate him with his great contemporaries at home. His essay entitled, "*Of Reading Authors*," promised something; but for Bacon, Jonson, Selden, &c., there were "the Senecas and Plutarch, the crisped Sallust, the politic Tacitus, the well-breathed Cicero"; — not one more modern. A later name from the Continent, as Galileo or Montaigne, may be found in his works; but why this silence as to his countrymen? Is it peculiar to our author, or was there generally less sympathy among literary men than now, or more delicacy towards each other?

If Felltham never speaks of his neighbours, none that we can recall ever speak of him. We know not when he was born, whether he ever followed or studied a profession, where he was educated, to whom he was married, where he lived, or at what time he died. In this dearth of facts one learns to value so small a thing as a hint in a letter to Sir C. F. that he is in the country and soon going to London; and a note to the Lord C. J. R. about a trial he was engaged in touching "the ancient inheritance of his family." Even the little anecdote of his going to a play at Salisbury Court, is something (p. 109); and also his note of the Earl of Dorset's reply to one who was superstitiously frightened at the salt's being thrown upon him (p. 181.) We do not offer these remarks as if we supposed that every literary life must abound in well-known outward facts, or that we cannot get along with a good book, because the author's history is just nothing at all. But we have felt a little surprise that a man who lived in a season of great public excitement and most probably to an advanced age; who, if a man of letters, was yet not wholly out of the world nor lukewarm in his religious and political opinions; who was acquainted with persons of note, and moreover a popular writer, if we may judge from the many editions his principal work went through in his lifetime; should have so little known about him either from record or tradition.

In this absence of all anxiety on his own part and that of his friends to preserve any particulars of what was probably a very quiet life, we may look to his writings for the truest picture that an author can leave of himself. Here every thing is full, clear, and decided. His "Resolves" are a series of essays upon religious, moral, political, and sometimes literary topics. He wrote one hundred of these (the first Century, as he calls them,) when he was eighteen years of age; but, being dissatisfied with their "many young weaknesses," he afterwards gave them "a new frame and various composition, by altering many, leaving out some, and adding of others new." These were republished with a new Century, in 1628. He says they were all written with the same object, "not so much to please others as to gratify and profit himself"; and published, "not in the expectation of great applause, but to give the world some account how he spent his vacant hours, and that they might be as boundaries to hold him within the limits of prudence, honor, and virtue."

One might apprehend from the object he thus distinctly proposed to himself, that these essays would abound with the tediousness, flippancy, or amusing vanity of egotism. Far from it. He says very little directly about himself. You have the man's mind as plainly before you as the face of a friend, but this is seen chiefly as it is exercised and affected by its subject. Self appears to be regarded by him as a moral nature to be studied, guarded, and improved ; and his meditations extending to almost every thing that concerns humanity, are of an exceedingly practical character ; and by sincerely consecrating them all to the purpose of strict self-application, he has secured for them the easier access to the heart of every reader. — There is something besides egotism to be feared from a writer's proposing to himself so to order his reflections, that they shall always have some especial practical bearing upon his mind and actions. It is to be feared that he will not be enough absorbed by his subject, will not follow it fully out, will not surrender himself to all that it would naturally suggest of bordering thoughts and varied uses. Fancies of all hues may swarm about him, but he must select what a too narrow purpose has made exclusively pertinent. The mind may long to break forth into many paths, all as safe and happy as the prescribed one, but it must be forced to keep in that. His idea of self and of what is practically useful may be very limited. He who would make every thing tend to improve this whole moral, intellectual being, must think of a great deal more than how to govern a passion, change a habit, establish a good system of work, or demean himself prudently and kindly in society. The Essays of Bacon and Franklin, the Meditations of Aurelius, all the practical maxims of shrewd observers of life, however fitted to give one equanimity or fortitude or sagacity or prudence, may yet leave a great part of the man untouched. And he, after all, may have had a thousand fold more generous moral nurture, who has exposed his whole soul to all the power of a well pondered subject, than he who has ever regulated its influences upon his mind, admitting some as congenial, and repelling or repressing all others as alien.

It appears to us that Felltham, without thinking at all about the possible evil of the plan he proposed to himself, has wholly escaped it ; that he is thoroughly practical and

yet free to contemplate his subject in all its aspects. In another place he says, that his "Resolves" are "written for the middle sort of people; that they are not high enough for the wisest"; but it is plain that he wrote them without thinking much of his readers of any class. In his closet, in "a melancholy study," as he chooses to call a student's retirement, he gave himself up to perfectly unconstrained reflection.

His distinguishing quality is good sound sense, the very plainest sense, and sometimes the very coarsest; but yet far from being arid or cold; a degree of unction, warmth, or pleasantry always shows how closely opinion and feeling were joined in his mind. What he conceived vigorously he was willing, according to the taste of the age, and it is often the taste of Burke, to tell in any way that seemed most forcible. He has recourse to illustrations from all quarters; the merest pedantry comes as heartily from him as the growths of his ever active fancy. All antiquity is ransacked for parallels and enforcements, and with these is mingled the most delicate or the strongest painting of what he has himself beheld or imagined. Thought is heaped on thought, conceit upon conceit. There is little of modern finish in the "composure," little of the rhetorician's completeness, or of the artist's detail and assemblage. He tells all he has to say just as the ideas come to his mind, with no lingering upon one pleasant image or thought, and no artful transition to another. His particularity is the result of plenty, and not of a desire to be minute or complete. There are few pictures ready made for us, but materials for a thousand, and we may make them for ourselves. It is worth while to read him if but to see how well it is to stop and meditate upon a briefly despatched thought, instead of always following out dilated thoughts with a pleasing sense of something still to come, which we are to reach wholly by the aid of another.

It must be allowed that he is sometimes very ordinary and tedious, and with apparently as little consciousness of it as of his eminent beauties. The amount of common-place, we suppose, is large in all writings; to disguise it is pretty easy in verse, but one of the triumphs of prose. Felltham cares no more about a poor thing of his own than a good one. He would disdain to concentrate all he knew or thought in one flame or sparkle; — and after breaking forth in mild or full splendor,

he is perfectly ready to pass again into the cloud, and without even irradiating it. A pretty fair estimate of his powers and peculiarities might be made from reading a few of his essays; but we are not content with this; we become engaged with the character of our tranquil adviser, and the charm of intimacy makes us desire more and more of his writings, with all their inequalities and deficiencies; and we read them again and again with the same equable satisfaction. The serenity or apparent indifference to fame in these old writers seems to be a pledge that they will never utterly perish. Their long obscurity is a sort of proof of their disinterestedness. They had something to say for our good, and were willing to wait for the season when we could perceive their merit, and value their intentions, and make a fair allowance for their defects.

Felltham lived when parties in religion and politics were most strongly marked and in deadly hostility; but we do not remember that he ever loses a liberal spirit. He could triumph at the Restoration, and so could Evelyn, but not in the temper of a slave or madman. He was a decided Protestant; but in his letter to Johnson the Jesuit, he says, "I am neither Zuinglian, nor Lutheran, nor Calvinist, nor Papist, but Christian." And again,

"I shall take it for a favor if you please to let me enjoy my religion in peace. Then I shall so far go along with your wishes, as to pray for direction in the right; making it further my petition to God that he will vouchsafe to build up his church in truth and unity, and to make us both so members of it here, as we may avoid the errors which exclude from that above, where I shall not despair but that you may be met by me."

The remarks we have offered have proceeded chiefly from the view which the "Resolves" present us of Felltham's mind and character. We could not select half a page from any of his one hundred and eighty-five chapters, which would not give the reader some tolerably distinct idea of him. We will quote the closing remarks of that entitled, "Of Preparing against Death."

"Lastly, I will endeavour to be prepared. Neither surprise nor strangeness can hurt me, if I be ready for both. He defeats the tyrant of his feast, that is so prepared as not to shrink at torment. The way to die undauntedly is to do that before, which we ought to do when dying. He that always waits upon

God is ready whensoever he calls. I will labor to set my accounts even, and endeavour to find God such to me in my life, as I would in death he should appear. If I cannot put off humanity wholly, let me put off as much as I can; and that which I must wear let me but loosely carry. When the affections are glued to the world, death makes not a dissolution, but a fraction, and not only separates the soul, but tears it away. So the pain and the hazard is more. He is a happy man that lives so, as death at all times may find at leisure to die. And if we consider that we are always in God's hand, that our lease is but during pleasure, and that we are necessitated once to die, as we shall appear infidels not to trust a Deity, so we must be fools to struggle where we can neither conquer nor defend. What do we do living, if we be afraid of travelling that highway which hath been passed through by all that have lived, and must be by all that shall live? We pray, undress, and prepare for sleep that is not one night long; and shall we do less for death, in whose arms we must rest prisoners till the angel with his trumpet summons him forth to resign us? This will not make life more troublesome, but more comfortable. He may play that hath done his task. No steward need fear a just lord, when his accounts are even and always ready drawn up. If I get the son and heir to be mine, the father will never hold off. Thus living I may die at any time, and be afraid at no time. Who dies death over every day, if he does not kill death outright, at least he makes him tame with watching him." pp. 48, 49.

Our author appears in somewhat a different light in his other works. Among these are his two Lay Sermons, as we may call them. The second is full of satire and humor, of learning and gallantry, bestowed upon the power and excellences of woman. Mr. Young has omitted them, and he could not well have published them entire. We give one passage from the first, which is on Solomon's view of the vanity of all things.

"What then shall we do, or whither turn to find a repose for the soul? All the mass of creatures put together is too narrow a palace to contain the soul of man. It flies in a moment to the deeps and ocean's springs, not only to the roots of mountains, but in a moment pierces quite through the earth's condensed globe, to the stars and highest convex of the bounding sky. So far as the creature reaches, it goes and finds no rest. God only is capacious; in him do all its vast extensions rest.

Unlimited thoughts in him a limit find ; and when we do lose the creature, still we do find him. He is farther off than the soul can reach, yet nearer than it can avoid."

The second of these discourses is on the passage in Luke, "And another said, I have married a wife, and therefore I cannot come." The following extract may give us his idea of the power of beauty, which he calls "the wit of nature put into a frontispiece, the spiritual soul in figure ; and in it", he says, "are the influences of the stars."

"Beauty is an empire without a militia ; for needing neither guard nor arms, it imposes whatever does please. Experience can tell us that it has flatted all the strengths of the world. It is mistress of all that is not God ; and when it rises to be of holiness, it amounts to be enthroned with him. In woman placed alone, it has done wonders, and taking the world's conquerors by the casque, has rifled them of all their hard earned wreaths and laurels. Adam's original innocence was not armour sufficient to resist her forces. Samson's giant strength by her was cheated into bondage and servility. David's right-heartedness became inflexed and crooked. And the grave incomparable Solomon, though he could precept the erring world against all the seducing crafts of women, yet we see he could not save himself from being entangled by their demulceations. With this man the devil went his old politic way ; for his plot being to gain the man, he sets upon him by his mistress first. No doubt but he which bought the farm had a team, and the other had five yoke of oxen ; yet could not all these draw so much as a wife ; she is a perpetual enchantment that hangs upon all the retirements of man."

Mr. Young's excellently prepared volume includes over fifty of the "Resolves," and the "Observations of the Low Countries." The latter work was also published nearly thirty years ago in the Cambridge "Literary Miscellany," one of our earliest and, alas, now forgotten journals. The remarks on the Dutch, their country, pursuits, and manners, are in a style of the broadest humor, and at the same time are often distinguished for severe, sententious wisdom. We have already alluded to Felltham's letters, which are nineteen in number. His forty-one pieces in verse, or "Lusoria," as he calls them, are of very little value. They are inferior to his translations of lines from Latin authors quoted in the "Resolves." We find in them, however, what we had not observed in

his more important writings, the mention of a few learned names among his countrymen. The death of Sir R. Cotton is commemorated in a distinct poem, and a couplet from the lines on the Lady E. M. introduces a still higher name :

“ A sheet of Bacon’s catch’d at more, we know,  
Than all sad Fox, long Holingshed, or Stow.”

And here the list of his writings closes.

We had occasion before to mention some of the qualities of his style. For the most part, he expresses himself clearly and in short sentences, with very little grace, but still with much that is picturesque in the diction. Sometimes, as if by accident, he gives us a passage of surpassing beauty, that might satisfy the most fastidious modern ear. Sometimes he falls into the most puerile inversions and a most vicious kind of rhythm. Would any one take what follows for prose ?

“ When after sin a Christian once considers,  
He finds a shadow drawn upon his light.  
The steps of night stay printed in his soul.  
His shine grows lean within him, and makes him like  
The moon in her declining wane.”

What we have thus marked off as verse, is taken from what stands as a prose paragraph in the “*Resolves*,” (p. 256.) There is more in the same strain ; but such a specimen might not be found elsewhere in many pages.

Felltham’s use of language is often as strange and offensive as these singularities of style. Like his contemporary, Sir Thomas Browne, he delights in the manufacture of most hideous words from the Latin. This abominable license in many writers of the age, is a remarkable fact in its literary history. A novel use of the settled, popular speech is sometimes a sign of originality and invention ; and differences among writers in this particular, may have the stamp of intellectual differences. But in the case we have alluded to, there is a downright, wilful, barefaced departure from current language, and, as we believe, in a spirit of sheer affectation and pedantry. Really, the language seems to have had a more settled, domestic character in the reign of Elizabeth, than in the two or three following. It must have had the principle of life and health strong indeed, to have been able to sustain itself and preserve in a good degree its old form and look. The truth is, after all, that the learned barbarisms of the



writers in question, are always such distinct blemishes, that they increase rather than impair the force and beauty of our mother English, and thus increase our fondness for what is wholly our own.

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ART. IV. — *The Library of Select Novels.* New York.  
J. & J. Harper. 1832.

"THE Library of Useful Knowledge" has been a fruitful prototype in this publishing age; and the reading world of England and America is inundated with "Libraries" of one kind or another, not issued like the great original, so much for the purpose of improving the knowledge of the many, by putting useful publications within the reach of their means, as for improving the finances of the publishers, by procuring under an imposing title and seeming cheapness, a sale for editions of works, many of which are dear at any price.

To all the "Libraries," so styled, these remarks are not applicable, as some are certainly valuable publications; to others the fullest force of them may be deservedly applied, and to none more than to that, the title of which is placed at the head of this article.

When its publication was first announced, we supposed its object would be to select from the literature of this class those works, the merits of which, as exhibiting the stamp of genius and portraying the spirit and manner of the times, seemed to make them deserving of being rescued from that oblivion, to which the multitude of them rapidly and unavoidably hasten; and, by embodying them into one uniform whole, to give them a more enduring vitality and reputation, and preserve them for a succeeding age as fit and worthy memorials of the imaginative literature of the past and the present. In short, we fancied that Messrs. J. & J. Harper were to be with regard to works of fiction, like the two swans of Ariosto,\* the ministers of at least temporary reputation to those works which should prove fortunate enough to attract their favorable regard.

In this anticipation we have been sadly disappointed. Though the works they have republished have doubtless

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\* Canto xxxv.

been selected, yet it has been done with so little discretion and judgment, that in our understanding of the word they can by no means be deemed *select*. Two or three among them are indeed nothing but reprints of works just published in England, and having no well ascertained character before they were put into the "Library," in which indeed was their first appearance in print on this side of the Atlantic.

Ten or twelve works have been published, making some twenty or twenty-four numbers of the "Library"; on some of these we shall now make a few particular remarks, in confirmation of our general observations.

"*The Young Duke*, by the Author of '*Vivian Grey*.'"  
*Vivian Grey* is a flippant, trashy performance, on the whole, though exhibiting occasional traces of wit and satire, indicative of natural powers in the author, that might have been better directed. It is, however, an unfinished tale. "*The Young Duke*," though more fortunate in this respect, is in others in no wise superior to its elder brother. Its author somewhere on the title-page is pleased to announce it as a *moral* work. We should be well pleased to have his definition of *moral*. He surely cannot understand it in that sense, in which it is employed in conjunction with *religious*, as forming what a lawyer would term *part* and *parcel* of the same character, — that sense in which by some, we fear, it is used as a substitute for, and as equivalent to, *religious*. No; it certainly must be, that he uses it in the sense of its classical derivation, as merely meaning *that which relates to manners*, good, bad, or indifferent, as the case may be; the same sense in which we charitably suppose that Marmontel applied it to his celebrated "*Tales*," with such an obvious contradiction to its first mentioned and now established English meaning, that some one proposed that an *in* should be placed before the word in the list of *errata*.

In this sense "*The Young Duke*" may be a *moral* tale, but the manners which it exhibits, and into the imitation of which the work as far as it has power is likely to lead, are those of vice and prodigality, not the less deserving of reprobation because associated with gayety, splendor, and fashion.

In the style of the work, though sometimes spirited, there is a superabundance of affectation, pertness, and forced and flashy attempts at wit and humor.

"*Eugene Aram*." This work in truth we have not read.

With the real history of Eugene we are acquainted, as well as with his noted trial and defence ; and the acquaintance is any thing but favorable to his being made the hero of a work of fiction intended for promiscuous circulation among the ignorant, the susceptible, and the imaginative. Besides, the book is from the pen of the author of "Pelham," of "Devereux," and of "Paul Clifford," works, of which the tendency is, to bring into repute, if possible, folly and vice, and even crime, — works from the perusal of which we arose with much the same feeling as we have escaped from low, disreputable, and impure company, into which we had unwillingly been brought by accidental circumstances, — with a sense of contamination, a feeling as if our mind had been soiled by the contact of the grossness and vice around us. This, too, is but the first reprint of the work in this country ; and allowing it to be different from its brethren and better than they, still its reputation has not yet been settled by the voice of the public, and it therefore ought not yet to find a place in such a collection.

This last reason is also applicable to "The Smugglers" and to "Philip Augustus," the former said to be the work of a Mr. Banim, the author of several Irish tales, and the latter by the author of "De L'Orme," whose name we do not recollect ever to have heard. Banim is a writer of some graphic power, though of no extraordinary kind ; and the scenes of his stories, amid the tumults, party feuds, and insurrections of Ireland, though they may be true enough in their resemblance to the reality, yet embrace much that is not particularly gratifying to the reader, and to which the mind returns with neither pleasure nor profit.

The author of "De L'Orme" is a writer of a more pleasing cast, and more fortunate in the selection of his topics, and, as we think, in his manner of handling them ; yet we cannot but doubt his claims to be thus singled out from among a number of writers, who may serve to amuse the weary mind in its hours of relaxation ; at least a longer time should be allowed to pass over his work, and the sanction of the public should be more unequivocally expressed on its merits, than in the mere puffs of a newspaper, the value of which is very indeterminate.

"The Dutchman's Fireside" also makes its appearance in the number. This too is a new work, and on the whole,

a tolerably pleasing one, though of no great pretensions, especially to such a place. Of the reprints of older works, we notice "Anastasius," "Evelina," "Caleb Williams," and "De Vere."

The reputation of "Anastasius" is high, and though it is not in all respects a work pleasing to our particular taste, yet we should not refuse it a place in the "Library." "Evelina," if our recollection serves us aright, is a well written work, and a good specimen of its class. To "De Vere" we should willingly grant admission.

"Caleb Williams" and most of Godwin's writings, unless it be "Cloudesly" (the last), have created considerable sensation in the world of letters, and still preserve a sort of reputation which has occasioned the present selection, though it does not seem fortunate. In truth, we have never been much disposed to admire Godwin's novels. There is, indeed, in them much of power and energy, but there is too much concentration of it upon some particular trait of character, generally not pleasing, so that the delineation gives to the principal personage the appearance of laboring under some infirmity of intellect, some strong delusion of mind, that has an influence upon his whole being and actions to such a degree, as to constitute him an insane person, a *monomaniac* according to French classification. The company of such a person in real life cannot be pleasing to any one, and in the artificial life of fiction must be in the same manner disagreeable in proportion to the fidelity of the delineation. We may admire the skill and power of expression that belong to the author, but the character leaves a painful impression upon the mind. We have fancied, too, that in these works we have noticed a tendency to the doctrine of Fatalism; this would constitute a serious objection to them. For such reasons we have no wish that the duration of them should be prolonged; to be forgotten, if it were possible, would be the best fate that can fall to the author of "Political Justice"; yet if one of his works were to be taken as a representative of the number, our recollections of them would make us prefer "St. Leon."

We do not now recollect the other works entering into the composition of this "Library," as far as published, but trust that enough has been said to substantiate our general opinion as first expressed. The whole amounts merely to an

attempt to put upon the public, under the name of *select*; any thing that novelty or any kind of attraction may render likely to command a profitable sale ; and those who wish for a good selection from this species of literature, would do more wisely to make it for themselves, or under the guidance of some judicious literary friend, than to take upon trust the Messrs. Harper's selection.

A Library of Novels might be made, which would be worth possessing ; but it requires no small taste to select from the multitude of these productions, which the last and the present age has sent forth, those which are really deserving of the distinction ; and we should wish to have the responsibility of some name favorably known in taste and letters as a warrant for the goodness of the choice, ere we should be willing to trust to it.

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ART. V. — *The Letters of the British Spy*. By WILLIAM WIRT, Esq. Tenth Edition, revised and corrected. To which is prefixed a *Biographical Sketch of the Author*. New York. J. & J. Harper. 1832. 12mo. pp. 260.

It is not incumbent upon us to say much of the reprint of a popular work, which has been long before the public ; of one which, like that of "*The British Spy*," has reached a tenth edition in less than thirty years from its first appearance. We should not feel bound to do it in this case, if it were not for the "*Biographical Sketch*" with which the work is introduced, and which forms a large portion of the volume.

Whether the biography of living men, who fill an important place in society, ought to be brought before the public, is at least very questionable. Its propriety may well be doubted, both as a matter of good taste and of good tendency. What mankind are most curious to know concerning those who have reached an eminent rank, is that which oftentimes it is unbecoming to relate. The forming period of life, frequently a period of great indiscretion, folly, or perverseness, we are always curious to become acquainted with, that we may learn the tendencies of character, the reachings of intellect, the disturbing influences of the passions, and all the zeal, restlessness, conflicts, victories, and defeats incident

to youth. This can in most cases be told only in a very imperfect manner, though it is no less instructive than interesting, if faithfully narrated. Then, again, in manhood and advancing years many things occur in the lives of distinguished men which are of doubtful interpretation, and which are regarded as good or ill according either to the prejudices of those who think themselves competent to form a judgment, or to the amount of evidence upon which such a judgment is founded. There are other objections to the biography of living men, among which we place the following, in the words of the author of the "Biographical Sketch" of Mr. Wirt.

"Biography has a delicate office while her subjects are yet living, as she may be accused of flattery on the one hand, and, on the other, may be thought to misplace and mistime the impartial censure, which she, no less than History, owes to truth, when, like the Egyptian tribunal, she sits in judgment on the dead. With regard to the subject himself, the mind most conscious of integrity, and the most happy in deserved success, may naturally shrink from that scrupulous analysis which is necessary to a full delineation of it. It is as naturally averse to the relation of many things, trivial in themselves, but characteristic, and which, on that account, are eagerly sought when the actors are no more, though till then they may fail to excite curiosity or interest in the public. Contemporary actors have their sensibilities also; a consideration which, in tracing the competitions and conflicts through which an individual has wrought his way to honor and influence, may require many sketches to be withheld, much of the coloring softened, and much of what may be called the material action suppressed." pp. 9, 10.

The objections here set forth, in addition to those which we have made and others which might be mentioned, are valid objections, though they are as little applicable, perhaps, to the instance before us, as they well can be to any prominent public man. Yet this, perhaps, is no reason for making an exception in favor of an individual. There still adheres to the work the evil of precedent, of contributing something to fashion, which pervades every thing, — a fashion, which, in the case under consideration, we should be very sorry to find prevalent. No doubt it is an agreeable thing to distinguish men to find their great and good deeds well spoken of, whether professional or patriotic. But there are various

ways of doing this without the set purpose of formal delineations of character, filled up with particular and chronological details, and touching upon subjects and controversies which have little to do with the literary and moral worth of the subject of them.

Such were some of our thoughts on this subject before we read the "Biographical Sketch" of the author of "The British Spy," which is very creditable to the writer, and very just to Mr. Wirt, who, we have no doubt, would be one of the last men to invite exaggerated praise. But there are always men before the public who have an appetite for eulogy, which is not easily cloyed; men who remind us of Cicero, when he sued so earnestly for the promised history of his consulship, of which he might enjoy the reading and the circulation during his life, as an evidence of the estimation in which he was held by the best of his countrymen. He was desirous that Lucceius, the historian, should give an account of the conspiracy, separate from the general history of events, particularly in order to soothe his impatience by greater despatch, but not without a desire of appearing in his full prominence as the eloquent, moral, patriotic hero, in confounding Catiline and his minions. This he foresaw would redound more to his glory, if it were singled out as a subject by itself. But having, as he acknowledged, gone beyond the boundaries of modesty, in the boldness of importunity he overleaps those of shame, beseeching his friend, as occasion might require, to sacrifice to affection the supreme law of history, by conceding to him something more than truth would justify.\* "Most unworthy of your wisdom and virtue, Marcus Tullius!" exclaims one of the commentators. "How forgetful have you become of that noble sentiment of yours, 'True glory takes root and flourishes; every thing factitious is transitory, and like the tender flower soon withers.'"

Such biographical sketches as that prefixed to the volume before us would do much to disarm us of our prejudices against historical accounts of the living. It contains a well written relation of facts, connected and interspersed with judicious remarks and speculations. Mr. Wirt was born at Bladensburg, in Maryland, on the 8th of November, 1772.

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\* Ciceronis Epist. ad Familiares. Lib. v. Epist. 12.

When eight years of age he lost his mother, who was a German, his father, a Swiss, having died some time before. But according to the usual course of Providence the place of his natural guardians was in a great measure supplied. He was brought up under good moral and religious influences, and such literary advantages as gave an impetus to his mind which carried him forward in a successful course of study till he was fifteen years of age, when the grammar school, at which he excelled, was broken up, and by a seeming accident he found a patron and friend to whom he ascribed much of his improvement in that critical period of life. He was employed under the roof of Mr. Edwards as an instructor of his son and nephews. Thus he was undergoing the best of all discipline in his classical studies, while he enjoyed the benefit of a small library, and the counsels and encouragement of a judicious and respected friend. After remaining in this situation for less than two years, he passed the winter of 1789, 1790, in Georgia, returned in the following spring, pursued the study of law, was admitted to practise in the autumn of 1792, "removed to Culpeper Court-house, in Virginia, and commenced his professional career there, being at the time only twenty years of age." We cannot proceed to trace the history of Mr. Wirt's progress in his profession, of his domestic affairs, of the marks of public confidence he has received, and of the public offices he has sustained, in "the Ancient Dominion"; and of his still more public station, as a distinguished functionary in the government of the Union, it is needless for us to speak.

"The British Spy" was written in 1803. In the Advertisement to the present edition, the publishers say, that, "having become possessed of a copy which has passed through the hands of the author, they eagerly embrace an opportunity of submitting a correct edition of that work to the patronage of the public. These letters were originally inserted in a daily journal ["The Virginia Argus"], and they appeared with all the imperfections to which such a mode of publication is unavoidably liable. In the present edition a variety of errors have been corrected." It is in general, so far as we have noticed, correct; but the publishers did not probably find in the "copy which has passed through the hands of the author," "*Eucalion's* flood," p.120.

This work excited great attention when it first appeared in



1803, and none the less on account of its doubtful origin. It was not long, however, before it was ascribed to its true author. The thin disguise which the "Letters" wore, purporting to be written during a tour through the United States, and supposed to have been addressed to Sheridan, was soon stripped off, and our countrymen were quick to acknowledge and claim the author as their own. Books of native origin were then few, compared with the present prolific period, and a writer of such talents could not long be concealed even if he wished to be unknown. These Letters are still in great favor, though not faultless in their style. The fresh descriptions of local scenery are not impaired by time; the delineations of character, drawn by a faithful hand, and proceeding from a keen observer, have become even more interesting, since they have ceased to be the portraits of living men; the philosophical speculations are entitled to the same respect as they were thirty years ago; and the pure moral and religious spirit which breathes through the whole is such as we like to recur to, and identify with the youth as well as advancement of one who now fills so large a space in public estimation. It would be out of place to give an analysis of this work, as if it appeared for the first time; but there are one or two passages to which we may recur, as of somewhat peculiar interest at the present period. The fourth Letter was occasioned by a visit to "the site of the Indian town Powhatan, the metropolis of the dominions of Pocahuntas's father"; and the author's descriptions of the relation between the whites and Indians, and his reflections upon it, are couched in a strain of noble eloquence dictated, we verily believe, by genuine emotion.

"The people, here, affect to wonder that the Indians are so very unsusceptible of civilization; or, in other words, that they so obstinately refuse to adopt the manners of the white men. Go, Virginians; erase, from the Indian nation, the tradition of their wrongs; make them forget, if you can, that once this charming country was theirs; that over these fields and through these forests their beloved forefathers, once, in careless gayety, pursued their sports and hunted their game; that every returning day found them the sole, the peaceful, the happy proprietors of this extensive and beautiful domain. Make them forget, too, if you can, that in the midst of all this innocence, simplicity, and bliss — the white man came; and lo! — the animated

phase, the feast, the dance, the song of fearless, thoughtless joy were over ; that ever since, they have been made to drink of the bitter cup of humiliation ; treated like dogs ; their lives, their liberties, the sport of the white men ; their country and the graves of their fathers torn from them, in cruel succession : until, driven from river to river, from forest to forest, and through a period of two hundred years, rolled back, nation upon nation, they find themselves fugitives, vagrants, and strangers in their own country, and look forward to the certain period when their descendants will be totally extinguished by wars, driven at the point of the bayonet into the western ocean, or reduced to a fate still more deplorable and horrid, the condition of slaves. Go, administer the cup of oblivion to recollections and anticipations like these, and then you will cease to complain that the Indian refuses to be civilized. But until then, surely it is nothing wonderful that a nation, even yet bleeding afresh from the memory of ancient wrongs, perpetually agonized by new outrages, and goaded into desperation and madness at the prospect of the certain ruin which awaits their descendants, should hate the authors of their miseries, of their desolation, their destruction ; should hate their manners, hate their color, their language, their name, and every thing that belongs to them. No : never, until time shall wear out the history of their sorrows and their sufferings, will the Indian be brought to love the white man, and to imitate his manners. . . . .

" Were I a president of the United States, I would glory in going to the Indians, throwing myself on my knees before them, and saying to them, ' Indians, friends, brothers, O ! forgive my countrymen ! Deeply have our forefathers wronged you ; and they have forced us to continue the wrong. Reflect, brothers ; it was not our fault that we were born in your country ; but now we have no other home ; we have no where else to rest our feet. Will you not, then, permit us to remain ? Can you not forgive even us, innocent as we are ? If you can, O ! come to our bosoms ; be, indeed, our brothers ; and since there is room enough for us all, give us a home in your land, and let us be children of the same affectionate family.' I believe that a magnanimity of sentiment like this, followed up by a corresponding greatness of conduct on the part of the people of the United States, would go further to bury the tomahawk and produce a fraternization with the Indians, than all the presents, treaties, and missionaries that can be employed ; dashed and defeated as these latter means always are, by a claim of rights on the part of the white people which the Indians know to be

false and baseless. Let me not be told that the Indians are too dark and fierce to be affected by generous and noble sentiments. I will not believe it. Magnanimity can never be lost on a nation which has produced an Alknomok, a Logan, and a Pocahuntas." pp. 164 – 168.

His descriptions of persons (of their mental qualities) are in general remarkably discriminating. That of the late President Monroe, with whom he was intimately acquainted, comes, as far as we are competent to judge, very near the truth. It must have seemed to many, in 1803, to have indicated no small degree of boldness in the prophetic spirit of the author, to predict that the then Governor of Virginia might become President of the United States. "It would be matter of no surprise to me," he says, "if before his death, the world should see him at the head of the American Administration."

Since we have hinted at prophetic gifts, we cannot forbear adverting to a prediction less definite, indeed, than that noticed above, but not without meaning, contained in a journal, with the recollection of which are associated some of our fondest remembrances of the past: "From this specimen of the talents of the *British Spy*, we form high expectations of the author." \*

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ART. VI. — *Memoirs of JOHN FREDERIC OBERLIN*, Pastor of Waldbach, in the Ban de la Roche. From the Third London Edition. With an Introduction by the American Editor. Cambridge. 1832. Hilliard & Brown. 16mo. pp. 301.

It is true, we believe, that plain matters of fact may frequently afford more interesting and impressive exhibitions of character, than the best tales of fiction with all their advantages of romantic narrative and skilful combinations of events. The delightful story of the pastor of Waldbach in the Ban de la Roche furnishes a very happy illustration of this truth. It makes a book, which must be a favorite with every one who has the true love of moral beauty. It is a story of entire and hearty devotedness to the godlike work of doing good;

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\* Monthly Anthology. Vol. I. p. 519. — An. 1804.

and we think a man has just cause to suspect himself of some wrong bias, if he can read it without experiencing that affecting and refreshing influence, which is breathed over the soul by the example of unostentatious, persevering, and energetic usefulness. Chaucer's admired description of *the Good Parson*, "rich in holy thought and work," is here finely realized.

John Frederic Oberlin was certainly an extraordinary man, — not for qualities or achievements that stand high on what is commonly called the record of fame, — but for something much better, for singleness of heart and unwearied devotion to the labors of benevolence and religion in a retired, humble sphere of duty, which could have had no charms but for one who felt deeply the conviction, that services rendered to the temporal and eternal interests of man in any situation are services rendered to God. Of the course and nature of his youthful studies at Strasburg, where he was born in 1740, the narrative before us gives no special information. We are told, however, that he pursued them with ardor and perseverance. Parental influence imbued his heart early and deeply with the principles of benevolence, disinterestedness, and piety. He devoted himself to the Christian ministry, and was strengthened in his good purposes by attending the sermons of Dr. Lorentz, a celebrated preacher at that time in Strasburg. Soon after this, the curacy of the Ban de la Roche became vacant by the removal of M. Stouber, its excellent pastor, who knew enough of the merits of the peculiar character of Oberlin to be extremely desirous of establishing him in that station. To this proposal Oberlin gladly consented. The Ban de la Roche is a remote district in the northeast part of France, one of the most rude, secluded, and uncultivated parts of the kingdom. The inhabitants of this canton, however, enjoyed that freedom of conscience in the profession of the Protestant faith, and in the celebration of the Protestant worship, which was unknown in the ancient provinces of France, — this privilege having been by express stipulation conceded to the district, when it was incorporated into the kingdom.

Oberlin, having chosen this humble but ample field of usefulness, took up his residence at Waldbach, one of the Lutheran hamlets in the district, and there commenced his labors as pastor to that and other neighbouring villages. We

have not space, nor is it necessary, to enter into the particulars of his extraordinary and most praiseworthy exertions among his uncultivated, and at first intractable parishioners. We can only say, that his ministry was a beautiful illustration of the self-sacrificing spirit in unwearied efforts to give light to the ignorant, relief to the distressed, counsel to the perplexed, and help to the feeble. Wherever good was to be done or service to be rendered, no difficulty or discouragement damped his ardor. Nor were his discretion and good sense inferior to his zeal. He adapted his efforts with great skill to the semi-barbarous condition of his people. While his deep, fervent, and patriarchal piety gave to his religious instructions a power, which even the most hardened and prejudiced could not resist, he busied himself in improving the roads and the modes of agriculture, in procuring better implements of husbandry for the people, in erecting school-houses, in the studies of the children, and in introducing new branches of industry, such as cotton-spinning and straw-platting. His share in some of these exertions was not limited to superintendence or advice, but included a great deal of personal, manual labor; and under his hands a new face was put upon the external affairs, as well as the morals and religion, of the district. His efforts in the cause of the Bible Society were highly and deservedly valued. Such in every respect were his deportment and influence, that his biography illustrates well the fine remark of Hooker, that "the life of a pious clergyman is visible rhetoric."

————— "There abides  
In his allotted home, a genuine Priest,  
The Shepherd of his Flock; or, as a King  
Is styled, when most affectionately praised,  
The Father of his people. Such is he,  
And rich and poor, and young and old, rejoice  
Under his spiritual sway, collected round him  
In this sequestered realm."

Oberlin died at a very advanced age in 1826. His character is one of those which we love to contemplate, for the same reason that we love to frequent those retired and beautiful spots of natural scenery where we seem to be alone with God, and with the spirit of purity. In reading his life we were reminded of some general traits of resemblance to the charming account of Robert Walker, the curate of Seathwaite,

given by Wordsworth in his notes to "The River Duddon." When we came to the story of Oberlin's marriage, we could not forbear a smile at the singular manner of his "waiting on Providence" for direction in the choice of a wife; but even this, when taken in connexion with the whole character of a man so sincere and simple-hearted, must be considered a respectable and amiable weakness. In general, he was remarkable for strong good sense, no less than for the pervading spirit of practical piety; and by the manner, in which he brought his good sense to bear on the secular as well as spiritual concerns of his parishioners, he gained their confidence as a man of sagacity and sound judgment. This is a point of no small importance to a clergyman. The late Thomas Scott judiciously remarked, that "when people saw that he understood things belonging to their profession, it would make them give him credit for more competency to instruct them in what pertained to his own." The tolerant and charitable spirit manifested by Oberlin towards different religious parties is worthy of all praise; for we hold the fact recorded of him to be highly honorable, that "he administered the sacrament to Catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists, at the same time; and because they would not eat the same bread, he had on the plate bread of different kinds, wafer, leavened, and unleavened."

We extract an interesting account of the sort of paternal simplicity of manner, in which Oberlin sometimes instructed the peasants.

"Every Friday Oberlin conducted a service in German, for the benefit of those inhabitants of the vicinity to whom that language was more familiar than French. His congregation on a Sunday consisted, on an average, of six hundred persons, but on a Friday of two hundred; and Oberlin, laying aside all form, seemed on such occasions more like a grandfather surrounded by his children and grandchildren, to whom he was giving suitable admonition and instruction, than the minister of an extensive parish. In order that no time might be lost, he used to make his female hearers knit stockings during the service, not indeed for themselves or their families, but for their poorer neighbours, as he believed that this charitable employment need not distract their attention, or interrupt that devotional spirit which generally pervaded the Friday evening assemblies. When he had pursued for half an hour the train

of his reflections upon the portion of Scripture which he had just been reading, he would often say to them, 'Well, my children, are you not tired? — Have you not had enough? — Tell me, my friends.' To which inquiry his parishioners would generally reply, 'No, Papa, go on; — we should like to hear a little more;' though on some occasions, with characteristic frankness, the answer was, 'Enough, we think, for one time;' and the good old man would leave off in the midst of his discourse, or wait a little, and presently resume it, putting the same question again at intervals, until he saw that the attention of his congregation began to flag, or until they, perceiving that he spoke with less ease, would thank him for the things he had said, and beg him to conclude." pp. 221, 222.

The following is a very striking and happy illustration of the influence of affliction in refining and improving the character. It is taken from a letter written by Oberlin to a lady who had suffered many bereavements.

"I have before me two stones, which are in imitation of precious stones. They are both perfectly alike in color; they are of the same water, clear, pure, and clean; yet there is a marked difference between them, as to their lustre and brilliancy. One has a dazzling brightness, while the other is dull, so that the eye passes over it, and derives no pleasure from the sight. What can be the reason of such a difference? It is this. The one is cut but in a few *facets*; the other has ten times as many. These *facets* are produced by a very violent operation; it is requisite to cut, to smooth, and polish. Had these stones been endued with life, so as to have been capable of feeling what they underwent, the one which has received eighty *facets* would have thought itself very unhappy, and would have envied the fate of the other, which, having received but eight, had undergone but a tenth part of its sufferings. Nevertheless, the operation being over, it is done for ever: the difference between the two stones always remains strongly marked; that which has suffered but little, is entirely eclipsed by the other, which alone is held in estimation, and attracts attention. May not this serve to explain the saying of our Saviour, whose words always bear some reference to eternity: 'Blessed are they that mourn, for they shall be comforted.' — Blessed, whether we contemplate them apart, or in comparison with those who have not passed through so many trials. Oh! that we were always able to cast ourselves into his arms, like little children, — to draw near unto him, like helpless lambs, — and ever to ask of him, patience, resignation, an entire surrender to his will,

faith, trust, and a heartfelt obedience to the commands which he gives to those who are willing to be his disciples." pp. 103, 104.

We should be glad, if we had room, to transfer to our pages many other passages in these excellent "Memoirs." The book must, we think, be popular,—popular, we mean in the best sense of the word, and permanently so; for the interest it creates is founded on feelings, which lie among the deepest and purest in the human breast. It is reprinted from the third London edition. The American editor, the Rev. Henry Ware, Jun., Professor of Pulpit Eloquence and the Pastoral Care in Harvard University, has enriched the volume with an Introduction, full of stirring thoughts, and animated with the best spirit, which cannot fail to be read with edification by every one who is in preparation for the sacred office, or is already engaged in its duties. We think he has done the public a valuable favor by the labor bestowed on the republication of this book. We heartily recommend it to our readers, as a volume in which they will find a most instructive exhibition of the power of a good and useful life, of true spirituality unmingled with any degree of cant or parade, and of devotedness to the glory of God and the welfare of man. It should be in the hands of every clergyman and every theological student; for the lessons to be gathered from it must be to them peculiarly exciting and impressive. It should be in the hands of every one, who loves the study of moral excellence; for it cannot be read without inspiring the conviction that goodness is the truest wisdom, and that we wrong our immortal nature if we suppose that any honor is to be preferred to the honor of doing what we may to make our fellow-men wiser and better.



ART. VII. — *Bibliotheca Classica, or a Dictionary, &c.*  
By J. LEMPRIERE, D. D. Seventh American Edition.  
Revised and corrected, and now for the first time divided  
under separate heads into Three Parts. Part I. *Geography, Topography, &c.* Part II. *History, Antiquities, &c.* Part III. *Mythology.* By LORENZO L. DA PONTE and JOHN D. OGILBY. New York. 1832. Collins & Hannay. 8vo. pp. 752.

THE seventh American edition of Lempriere's "Classical Dictionary" comes before the public, under rather extraordinary circumstances. The editors inform us, that the original work is a very bad one, as all the world knew before; and that the London "Journal of Education," which must be believed of course, as it has on its outside cover "names beyond all competition in letters"; — "appears to have set on it the final seal of absolute reprobation." To this sentence they incline to subscribe, and so full was their conviction of the utter worthlessness of Lempriere, that they had intended to rewrite every article, and to introduce the necessary new ones. Before, however, they could prepare for the commencement of this task by getting the necessary works from Europe, "the call of their publisher required them to begin"; and the nature of their contract was such, that they were not at liberty to disregard the call. Here then we are informed of a contract, which obliged the editors to prepare an edition of a worthless book without the necessary helps; and at the same time of an intention to rewrite every article of the original Lempriere. What favor can they expect to find with the public after such an avowal; or what credit should be given them for an intention, which their own contract rendered it impossible for them to fulfill?

But let us see what they have done. In the first place, they have separated the provinces of geography, history, and mythology, in order not to spread truth and fable on the same leaf before the boy. This we are disposed to regard as useless labor, and the same end might have been answered, if necessary, by putting the abbreviations *Geog.*, *Mythol.*, *Hist.*, at the head of the respective articles. A boy might, indeed, possibly confound Pelion and Pelias by seeing these names placed in close vicinity, or even take St. Nilus for the

river Nile, or *Ægyptus* the father of fifty sons for *Ægyptus* the country; but to err is human, and the same human frailty might induce him to look for father Eridanus among the mythological beings, or for Styx and Cocytus among the rivers. But apart from this, it is impossible in classical, especially in Greek antiquity, to draw the line between fact and *mythos*, and to separate them must therefore be often arbitrary. The work before us will readily furnish proofs of this assertion. Suppose, for instance, a boy were reading "The Suppliants" of Euripides, where Theseus and Adrastus figure together: he looks into his new Lempriere, and finds Adrastus an historical personage, and Theseus a mythological one; while, in matter of fact, the former is for us almost a mere creature of poetry, but the latter, having lived in the traditions and literature of civilized Athens, being considered even by her orators as the father of liberty, has become the subject of history. Thus, too, we find in the historical department Amphictyon, a name plainly invented to stand as the founder of the celebrated council; whilst Hellen his father, who has at least as good a title to appear there, is thrust among such people as Jupiter and Hercules. Even Hercules himself might set up such a claim with some shadow of justice, since that of Busiris whom he slew in Egypt is admitted. Cecrops again has a place in history, while Aglauros, Pandrosos, and Herse, his daughters according to some of the ancients, are nothing but mythological beings. Now Cecrops was conceived of by the Athenians as one of the *autochthons*, and was represented as half man and half serpent, and the story of his having led a colony from Egypt to Athens, if we except a broken passage of Diodorus, rests only on the scholiasts and lexicographers.

The second change which the editors profess to have made, is the expunging of passages offensive to delicacy and morality from the mythological articles. This is all very well, but let it be understood that the fifth and sixth editions were treated in the same manner by another person; so that the credit of the design should rest with him. As for the manner of the execution, since the editors say themselves that the offensive matter was not *thoroughly* eradicated before, we may conclude that it was very nearly so, or they would have used stronger language. If we must have heathen mythology, we cannot avoid having with it much that

is evil; and we venture to assert that there is hardly a crime which may not be found recorded upon more than one of the pages even of this immaculate edition.

The third change which the editors have made, is the introduction of many new articles, and of passages intended to correct the errors of the original work. There are about twenty such in the Mythological part, some of which are trifling and useless; in the Historical part we have seen but three, of which one is inserted to cast ridicule upon the editor of the fifth and sixth editions for inquiring where Annibal could have found vinegar enough to soften the rocks on his passage across the Alps. That editor is said also manifestly to incline to receive this story. What his private opinions are we cannot say; but to judge from his remarks inserted in the article "Annibal," to which reference is made, the charge is quite unfounded. In the Geographical part the changes have been great; and here we will let the editors speak for themselves.

"As the Geographical department has always been held the most important, at the same time that it was the most incorrect in the original work, it will be observed that this department has claimed the principal care of the editors. The addition of many new articles, in all, it is believed, amounting to several hundred, was the smallest part of their labor; the greater number of all those which were to be found in former editions being entirely re-written in this. The geography of Italy and Greece has recently been admirably illustrated by the research and the labors of many learned scholars; but no writer has succeeded in describing more accurately or more eloquently the interesting cities, rivers, and mountains of those countries, all equally connected with the most pleasing associations of the classical scholar, than the Rev. J. A. Cramer in his Geographical descriptions of Ancient Greece. The results of this able antiquary's investigations the editors have freely transferred to their pages, having put to the test of a strict comparison with the ancient authorities the passages of which they have thus availed themselves." *Preface.*

We have several remarks to make upon this extract. In the first place, we question much, — notwithstanding that others have asserted it, — whether this department is the most important. Geography must be learnt from a separate treatise and an Atlas, or it will never be known. What accurate or

connected idea of the ancient world can a boy get by turning over the pages of a classical dictionary? Nor are fullness and exactness so very important here; fullness will deter from reading the article through, and the utmost exactness can never give a distinct idea of situation. And to give all the historical relations of places would fill several such volumes as the one now before us.

In the second place, we incline to believe, contrary to what the editors assert, that the historical part, left untouched in the present edition, has more and grosser imperfections in it than the geographical; and to justify this belief we will give three or four examples, — the first to which we turned.

*Antiphon.* This orator, the master of Thucydides, and one of the first men of his time, as the history of the Peloponnesian war shows, is entirely omitted, although his works stand in every collection of the Attic orators.

*Phalaris.* "There are some letters extant written by a certain Abaris to Phalaris with their respective answers." Out of one hundred and forty-eight, in Boyle's edition, there is only one to Abaris with his answer. "But they are supposed by some to be spurious." We should like to know who, since Bentley wrote, has imagined them to be genuine.

*Demades.* "One of his orations is extant." A fragment only of an oration of this unprincipled man (who, notwithstanding, is one of Mitford's worthies) upon his twelve years' administration of the finances, has come down to us.

*Lycurgus.* "Some of his orations are extant." Every body acquainted with the Attic orators knows of the single preserved speech of this distinguished man and fervid orator.

*Hyperides.* "One of his orations remains." A small fragment of his Funeral oration is preserved by Stobæus, and forms nineteen lines in Gaisford's ed. (Tit. 124, No. 36.) Two other still smaller fragments of his Deliac oration may be found mentioned in Ruhnken's Hist. Crit. Oratt. Græc. (p. lxx., before Rutilius Lupus), and in Casaubon's Notes upon Athenæus (vol. ii. col. 719, ed. 1612), to say nothing of smaller citations. Reiske, indeed, saw fit to refer two orations found among the works of Demosthenes to this orator; but his reasons, like his criticisms, have not found favor with scholars.

*Athenæus.* The first two, part of the third, and almost the whole of the fifteenth book of the *Deipnosophistæ* are

lost, says Lempriere. It should have been, — the first, second, and part of the third book exist only in a copious epitome, which Eustathius made use of for the whole work, whenever he had occasion to cite it. The fifteenth book is nearly entire, and about as large as the fourteenth. There was, indeed, a time almost three centuries ago, when that book was more imperfect, but Canter edited a large fragment of it in his "*Novæ Lectiones*," as Casaubon mentions in the Preface to his Notes (vol. ii. ed. 1612), and we suppose Lempriere drew from some writer anterior to that period, or else, as in another case, — for we cannot now stop to ascertain the fact, — he may have drawn his information from Vossius, and mistaken the sense of that writer.

These specimens are enough to make us suspect every article, in the Historical part, of gross inaccuracy. And what more can be said of the Geographical? unless indeed Lempriere has confounded countries, as the present editors have done in their Preface; where they say, that Mr. Cramer has described the cities, rivers, and mountains of Italy in his description of Ancient Greece. For as we have found no such confusion in Mr. Cramer himself, who has kept Italy and Greece apart in his separate works, we must throw that confusion upon the editors themselves, who seem hardly to know from what books they made their most copious extracts.

Our readers will be no less surprised than we ourselves were after we had written thus far, to learn that several of the mistakes just now pointed out were corrected by the editor of the fifth and sixth editions. For what purpose then do these new editors return to the original work, unless to "set the seal of absolute reprobation" upon their own labors?

The Geographical articles may be considered as to authority, matter, and accuracy of citation. The greater number of them are either extracted or made up from Mr. Cramer's works on Greece and Italy, whose plan, though not so extensive as Mr. Kruse's "*Hellas*," resembles it in collecting the notices of modern travellers and combining them with ancient accounts. Sometimes the editors have not quoted Mr. Cramer, but only his authorities, either through carelessness or a desire of seeming learned. The other works cited are those of Malte-Brun, D'Anville, and such others as the editors could lay their hands on, in the absence of the

necessary works from Europe, among which they assign a high place to Heylin's "Cosmography." The articles thus prepared are many of them altogether too long for the nature of the work. Who wants, for instance, seven closely printed columns about Hetruria, or ten about Greece, or five about Spain, or the same number about the Huns, in a Classical Dictionary?

There are about three thousand articles in this part of the Dictionary; in Mannert's various catalogues at the end of his volumes, there are over nine thousand names, according to a rough computation. Now, in the space allotted to geography, they might have introduced many more, or, if that were not necessary, might have spared almost a hundred pages of matter, valuable in its place, but out of place in a Classical Dictionary.

The editors, in the extract from the Preface already given, claim to have put to the test of a strict comparison with the ancient authorities, the passages from Mr. Cramer, of which they have availed themselves. Now those who are at all versed in the laborious employment of comparing a writer with his authorities, know that it would be impossible in the evenings of three months, which was the time spent in preparing this edition, to verify one tenth part of Mr. Cramer's citations, if nothing were done besides. But let us see from two or three examples how much strictness of comparison has been used.

*Bassæ*, the editors inform us, was a village of Arcadia, near Mount Cotylius. Mr. Cramer calls it a spot, translating the word used by Pausanias (*ρυσιον*) with great propriety, as does Sir William Gell also in describing the place (Itin. of Morea, p. 63.) Cotylius ought to be Cotylius, for though Cramer, Siebelis, and Mannert, following the Latin translation, give this ending to the word, Mr. Dodwell in his travels, and Mr. Müller in *Die Dorer*, give the right ending, Cotylius, according to the Greek text. For a third blunder in the same article *Setinus* instead of *Ictinus*, we suppose the press must be chargeable, as Mr. Cramer, from whom the information given (excepting the first mistake), is derived, has that name right. This article with its three mistakes, if admitted, should have been incorporated with Phigalea; for if a person who had heard of the Phigalean marbles in the British museum should wish to know what they were, he must seek

this insignificant word *Bassæ* for an account of the temple from which they were taken, and yet there is no intimation given that these are the marbles so called, Mr. Cramer having accidentally omitted to mention that circumstance in his work.

*Abæ*, the first name in the work. Here the editors have departed from Mr. Cramer, and looked into Pausanias to misquote him. "Pausanias asserts, that it [the temple of Apollo at Abæ] was but half destroyed at first, and like many other Grecian temples was suffered to remain in that condition as a monument of Persian hostility." Now Pausanias says only, that *he thinks* it must have been half burnt in the Persian war: he would not assert it positively, for there had been several changes in the condition of the building before he wrote.

*Callium*. There are two mistakes of printing here. *Calliar* should be *Calliæ*, and *Liv.* iii. 3, *Liv.* xxxvi. 30, as Mr. Cramer has it. We have found the same incorrectness elsewhere. Sometimes one writer is turned into two, thus: *• Ammian — Marcellin, Heyl — Cosm.* Sometimes the citations are wrong, sometimes the press is wrong.

We will refer to but two more articles as specimens of the work, which, together with those already named and one or two more for which we have no room, were the first which we consulted.

*Chersonesus*. After mentioning two peninsulas, Peloponnesus and that of Thrace, the editors say, "Next to the Peloponnesus, and scarcely less noted, was the Chersonesus Cimbrica, now Holstein and Jutland" — Why next to the Peloponnesus, if another peninsula had been mentioned between? And how could so strange an assertion be put down upon paper as that the Cimbrian Chersonesus was scarcely less noted than the core of Greece; when, down to the time of Alexander, but one Greek had been known to penetrate into the north of Germany, and he was considered of no authority, and when the knowledge possessed by the Romans concerning that quarter was extremely imperfect? We know not, indeed, where it could have been noted, unless among its own savage inhabitants; like "the town in western climes, to those that dwell therein well known."

*Caledonia*. "Eumenius, the first that mentions the Caledonians." There seem to be two mistakes here. First,

Tacitus mentions, if not the Caledonii, at least the "Caledoniam incolentes populi" and the "rutilæ Caledoniam habitantium comæ," (Agric. § 11, § 25, ed. Oberlin.) Secondly, Eumenius according to so good a scholar as Valesius, (on Amm. Marcel. xxvii. 8, 5, ed. Wagner.), has *Dicaledones*, and not *Dico Caledones*, as it stands in some editions; so that he does not mention them at all.

Our readers will think by this time that there was no great need of having it told that this edition "was the result of three months' labor bestowed on it by the editors in the evenings of days devoted to professional avocations." And still more will they be at a loss to conjecture what need there was of such a hasty, crude edition, when it was known that an industrious and learned scholar was making a complete revision of the work, and had already, we believe, put part of his new edition in the press. And they will, we are persuaded, be of our opinion, that, if he prosecutes his task with faithfulness and judgment, without being led astray by theories and misplaced learning, the present edition will be as speedily forgotten, as it seems to have been entirely uncalled for.

ART. VIII. — JAHN'S *Biblical Archaeology*. Translated from the Latin, with Additions and Corrections. By THOMAS C. UPHAM, Professor of Moral and Intellectual Philosophy and of the Hebrew Language in Bowdoin College. Third Edition. Andover. Mark Newman. 1832. 8vo. pp. viii. and 573.

THE Hebrew nation is perhaps the oldest nation now upon earth, — certainly the oldest of the origin and early character of which we have authentic records. This consideration, if there were no other, might recommend these records, and whatever may aid in their illustration, to the attention of the antiquary. And so far as antiquaries exercise an influence upon the public taste and morals, it might be well if they would sometimes desert the seats of classic fame for Palestine, and would transfer to the tents of the patriarchs, to the heroes in the conquest of Canaan, to the period of Samuel's paternal supremacy or of David's infant monarchy, a part of the absorbing interest which they feel in whatever can claim kindred with Athens, Thebes, or Troy. In the Hebrew com-



monwealth we behold a state of society rude, indeed, and barbarous, but yet characterized by honesty, sincerity, reverence for truth, and admiration of virtue. And the frequent contemplation of the early character and habits of the Hebrew worthies might do much towards restoring domestic manners and social intercourse to that simplicity, which, as it is the necessary concomitant of the lowest, is the demand of the highest intellectual refinement.

The study of Hebrew antiquities, interesting on account of the *early origin* of the nation to which they relate, is rendered doubly so by its *present condition and character*. It has been well said that the English nation has no present existence, — that it exists only in precedent and on the statute-book. Much less can a present existence be predicated of the Jews. They lead in some respects the lives of the patriarchs, their fathers. Like them they are strangers and sojourners ; like them they refuse to provide themselves with a permanent abode ; like them they look for a bright and fertile land of promise ; like them they are destined to bequeath to their posterity the *hope alone* of such a land. Changing fashions affect them not. Public opinion they regard not. The revolutions of empires leave their condition unaltered. They still derive their domestic habits, their modes of social intercourse, their hopes of honor and prosperity, from the records of gray antiquity, and the mystic vision of the seer. Thus their national archæology is in many particulars the portraiture of their present character.

To the religious man the early history and condition of the Israelites acquire a new interest from their having been selected as the subjects of a divine code of laws, which extended its precepts to every department of life and manners. Their police, their modes of agriculture, their domestic relations, and all things, are divinely sanctioned. Their food is of God's appointment. Their festivals and fasts are sacred to him. Their very clothing is adorned with his precepts. Every thing about them is ritually holy to the Lord.

The internal condition of the Hebrews proffers a yet higher claim to our regard, when we consider the interesting relation which they bore to the surrounding nations. They were, indeed, superstitious, ungrateful, and rebellious ; but yet in their prosperity they stood forth alone as the worshippers of one invisible God, and in the depth of adver-

sity they bore tacit testimony to the unseen agency of his justice. They were unskilful in the arts, and strangers to science; but at the same time they produced a literature, which surpasses in sublimity, beauty, and moral purity the noblest productions of the most enlightened nations. They were often lame in counsel and weak in battle; but yet they retained their separate existence, scarcely ever lost a living citizen, and were constantly receiving proselytes from the neighbouring tribes. And when they were on the brink of ruin, the Messiah came forth from the lineage of David, was initiated into their religion, and by his observance of their customs, his attendance upon their ritual worship, and his choice of apostles from among them, associated himself with them in the minds of all who should ever after reverence him as the Son of God, as a Prince and a Saviour.

Indeed when we take him and his revelation into view, Jewish antiquities become a subject not merely of curiosity and intense interest, but of immense practical importance. He and his apostles allude constantly to the soil, climate, and productions of Palestine, and the circumstances, manners, and prejudices of its inhabitants. Without a knowledge of these, it is impossible, in reading the New Testament, to separate the figurative from the literal, — the local from the general, — what is of temporary learning from what is of perpetual obligation. In fact, one destitute of this knowledge would be in most cases obliged either to acquiesce in a crude mass of truth, superstition, and absurdity; or to reject the Christian system, because its records were unintelligible and therefore incredible. But even if such a man could escape gross error and gather from the Gospel all essential truth, he would be unable to discern the peculiar appropriateness and beauty of our Saviour's discourses. Not only are these adapted to the occasions on which they were delivered; but they are full of delicate allusions to the scene, the season, and the situation and feelings of the hearers. We may illustrate these remarks by an example drawn from John vii. 37, "In the last day, that great day of the feast, Jesus stood and cried, *If any man thirst, let him come unto me and drink.*" That this figure is not of itself unapt, every one must at first sight admit; but "Is it not very unnatural," one might reasonably ask, "to introduce a discourse with so bold and rhapsodical an exclamation"? The student of Jew-

ish antiquities will give a prompt answer. Jesus was then attending the joyous feast of tabernacles, each day of which and especially the last, was consecrated to the full enthusiasm of religious mirth. Each morning the priests drew water in a golden vessel from the fountain of Siloam, carried it to the temple and made a libation of it southwest of the altar, while amid the gladdening strains of cymbal, psaltery, and harp, the people sung with transport, "With joy shall ye draw water from the wells of salvation." The echo of that triumphant song had not died away, when the Heaven-born Teacher called the attention of his countrymen to Himself,—the *well of salvation*,—the perennial fountain of life to the thirsty soul. How ineffably sublime this spiritualization of a rite, till then pompous indeed, but senseless!

It is pleasing to find that each of the prominent sects of Christians has furnished, in the biblical researches of its members, permanent and precious monuments of its reverence for the Scriptures. A union, which takes place no where else, is effected on the table of the theologian, who in the same critical inquiry consults perhaps an *Archæology* compiled by a Catholic, a Calvinistic Commentary, a Lexicon by a Lutheran divine, a Gospel Harmony,—the result of Unitarian research, and a volume of critical disquisitions by a visionary, yet deeply learned Neologist. We are indebted to a Catholic priest for the valuable work now before us.

"The author of the original work is Dr. John Jahn, who was formerly Professor of Oriental Languages in the University of Vienna. It was at first written in the German language, and extended through five octavo volumes. Being of such extent and accompanied with numerous plates, it was found too expensive for common use, and after numerous solicitations to that effect, was abridged by the author himself, translated into Latin, and printed in a single octavo volume. The translation into English, which is now presented to the public, is made from the second edition of the Latin Abridgment, printed at Vienna in 1814." p. iii.

This work is accurate, concise, and full. Without the parade of learning (unless the introduction of words in the Oriental tongues, which however are not left untranslated, be so considered), it gives the result of the most profound and laborious research. It is divided into Three Parts,—the *first* treating of domestic, the *second* of political, the

*third* of sacred antiquities. Each of these divisions embraces an historical sketch from the days of Abraham to those of Christ.

Mr. Upham's translation is well executed, the additions which he has made to the original work are valuable, and the only ground of regret is, that he has not incorporated with it more of the fruits of his own research. It was first published in 1823. The second edition appeared in 1827, enriched by a full Index of all the passages of Scripture illustrated or even referred to in the work, with the section or sections in which reference is made to each. This Index is of course retained in the present edition. We hope that whenever a new edition is called for, the translator will see fit to append to it an alphabetical index of subjects, which is all that is needed to make it as convenient and useful a reference-book as can be any where found of the same size.

Ever since the publication of the first edition, this translation has been advantageously known and much used by the members of the *clerical* profession. It is one of our principal objects in penning this article to recommend it to *laymen*. It is admirably fitted to enlighten and assist any intelligent and inquiring reader of the Bible. We close this brief notice by extracting a section from this work on the *importance of Biblical Archaeology to the theologian*, premising that the service which this science is said to do for the theologian, the compend of it now before us may profitably discharge for the private Christian.

"I. It enables him to throw himself back more fully into the age, the country, and the situation of the sacred writers and their cotemporaries, and to understand and estimate the nature and the tendencies of the objects, which are there presented to him. II. It puts him in a better situation to detect allusions to ceremonies, customs, laws, peculiarities in the face of the country, &c., and to make himself sure of the precise import of the passages where such allusions occur. III. It proffers him new ability in answering the objections of the opposers of Revelation, the greater part of which originate in ignorance of antiquity. IV. It presents to his view distinctly and impressively the adaptation of the different dispensations, the object of which was to preserve and transmit religion, to the character and situation of the age. V. It shows him where to separate moral precept and religious truth from the drapery of figurative language, in which they are clothed; since language,

considered as a medium of thought, takes its character in a measure from that of the times. VI. It enables him to enter into the nature and spirit of the arguments in favor of the authenticity of the sacred books. VII. That an acquaintance with Biblical Archæology is of great importance is evident from this also, that all who have undertaken to explain the Scriptures, while ignorant of it, have committed very great and very numerous mistakes." pp. 1, 2.

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ART. IX. — *The Life of Gouverneur Morris, with Selections from his Correspondence and Miscellaneous Papers; detailing Events in the American Revolution, the French Revolution, and in the Political History of the United States.* By JARED SPARKS. Boston. Gray & Bowen. 1832. 3 vols. 8vo.

GOUVERNEUR MORRIS was born at Morrisania, near the city of New York, January 31, 1752. He was descended from ancestors who had for several generations been distinguished in the political and judicial history of the Provinces of New York and New Jersey. He was graduated at the College in the city of New York, in May, 1768, at the early age of sixteen. While in that institution he was distinguished for his ready talents, for vivid imagination, and for his ardent love of Latin and the Mathematics. The orations which he delivered on taking his first and second degrees, though faulty in style and crowded with metaphor, exhibit a full share of intellectual vigor and an under current of sober thought, and in this respect greater maturity and power than we should expect from one so young. There was not, indeed, any such precocious display as we sometimes see, gratifying the cherished hopes of fond parents, only to prostrate them afterwards by the destruction of the blossom; but young Morris gave good promise and reasonable expectation of future worth and distinction.

On leaving college he commenced the study of the law with William Smith, the historian of New York, a very distinguished jurist, and at a subsequent period Chief Justice of the Province. Under the guidance of this excellent master, the pupil made rapid progress in the elementary studies of the profession, neither alarmed by its technical terrors that

startle so many in *finance*, nor drawn aside by the fascinations of literature nor by those pleasures that so often prove fatal to young men of ardent temperament. Even at that early age he displayed more sober and vigorous thought, more ripe discretion of judgment than belonged to many of the thinking men of that day. A project had been brought forward in the Assembly of the Province in 1769, to raise money by issuing bills of credit to be put out on loan, and from the accruing interest to pay the debts of the Province, &c. This was the old practice which had prevailed in Massachusetts as early as 1690, and in other Provinces at different periods, and whose direct and certain tendency always was towards individual and general bankruptcy; for these bills of credit in fact, had no substantial funds to meet them, and represented no real value. Morris saw the subject in the true light; and, though scarcely eighteen years old, he wrote with ability against the measure, and gave unerring manifestations of his future distinction in the intricate science of finance.

In October, 1771, before he was twenty years of age, Morris was called to the bar.

"His financial discussions," says his biographer, "and some other proofs of his abilities, had made him known to the principal men of the Province; and a volunteer address to a jury about the time of his being licensed, on some occasion in which the community took a deep interest, was represented by the hearers as an extraordinary display of eloquence and skilful reasoning in so young a man. With the advantages of his family name, a fine person, an agreeable elocution, active and industrious habits, talents, and ambition, no young man in the province was thought to exhibit a fairer promise of rapid advancement, and ultimate eminence in his profession." pp. 15, 16.

Doubtless had he continued at the bar, his professional success would have been distinguished; and at that period he decidedly preferred the forum to the hazardous paths of politics. But a time was rapidly approaching when the country would demand the public exertions, either in the cabinet or in the field, of her worthiest and bravest sons. Meanwhile he was assiduous in his labors, and tradition preserves the account of his rapid progress to eminence in a profession that tasks to the utmost the intellect, industry, and patience of its disciples.

Before the breaking out of the revolutionary war, and indeed for some months after, he, with most others looked forward, though with daily diminishing confidence, to a re-union with Great Britain ; and easily fell into the prevailing doctrine of the patriots of the day, in relation to an accommodation of differences, by yielding to the parent country the *regulation of trade*, and reserving to the colonies the entire power of taxation, and the regulation of their internal police. The progress of events soon cured his dislike of politics, and we find him taking an early and decided stand in favor of his country. To estimate the importance of this step, and the sacrifice it compelled him to make, we must recollect that at the beginning of the war the Province of New York was full of those who adhered to the royal government. Parties, perhaps, were nearly balanced in numbers ; but in wealth and probably also in talents and education, the tory interest was by far the more powerful. His distinguished friends, his nearest relatives were of that party ; but he disregarded their wishes, and what is always more difficult to resist, the earnest entreaties of a beloved mother, and came out without a moment's hesitation, heartily and boldly, on the side of his country ; " and to the end of the contest stood in the front ranks of those most distinguished for their patriotism, fortitude, and constancy."

In the spring of 1775, Morris was elected delegate to the first Provincial Congress in New York, and continued a member of that body by successive elections, with one exception, for more than two years. In all questions of finance, and indeed on almost every question, his was the leading mind, influencing and controlling the opinions of older men around him, at a period in his own life which is generally that of preparation for its busy scenes. In the very first Provincial Congress it became necessary to provide for raising money to defray the heavy expense of the new order of things, and to put the Province in a state of defence ; and Morris was placed upon the committee appointed to take the subject into consideration. But trade in every department was stagnant, and whence then was money to be obtained ? It could not be raised by taxation, for the great body of the people had nothing to pay with but the produce of their farms, which could not be changed into cash or any equivalent. The only resort, therefore, was to paper-money, not as

to a scheme excellent in itself, but because, poor as it was, it was the *only* scheme that could be adopted, the only "*money sinew*" of the war. The report upon the subject, drafted by Morris, was adopted without amendment or change.

"When it was read and received, a day was fixed for its being resumed; and on motion of Mr. Morris it was agreed, that the doors should be open on that day, and the merchants and others of the city and colony invited to attend and hear the debates. It was discussed accordingly in presence of a thronged audience, and Mr. Morris's speech on that occasion was listened to with admiration, and looked upon as an extraordinary display of argument and eloquence in a young man of twenty-three. The knowledge he manifested of a most intricate subject, which is seldom mastered by years of experience, the force of his reasoning, the ingenuity of his illustrations, a manner at once dignified and persuasive, an elocution smooth and unembarrassed, confidence in his own powers, and a deep sense of the importance of his subject, all these conspired to quicken his energies and strengthen his efforts, till he found his way to the hearts of his hearers, and carried captive their understandings. It was a day of glory and auspicious moment to the young orator, long remembered and treasured up in the minds of the people, as a precursor of future success and eminence." p. 39.

In May, 1776, Morris was again a member of the Provincial Congress, and this was by far the most memorable session of that body. We find him here the leader in debate on almost every important question, and perhaps the most influential man in that Assembly. Grave matters were to be discussed, viz. the assuming of independence, and the formation of a new plan of government. The forming of a new government was in reality a declaration of independence. On both topics Morris was the most prominent in debate. Some ten or eleven pages from the fragments which have been preserved of his speech on the subject of a new Constitution, are inserted by Mr. Sparks, and they do justice to the early fame of the orator, who in the course of his remarks urges with power and zeal the necessity of entire separation from Great Britain, and of assuming independence. This was in June, 1776, after the Virginia resolves had been received, but before it was known what ground would be taken



in the Continental Congress, where the question was under discussion with closed doors. Morris reasoned well from the faith that was in him ; and from an intimate acquaintance with the character of the American people, he partially drew aside the veil that separates the future from the present, and pointed out to his audience something of the coming strength and greatness of his country. We find him again distinguishing himself in the Convention of 1777, that framed a form of government for the new State, and endeavouring to infuse a sufficient degree of strength into the constitution to preserve its continuity and duration.

We do not purpose to mention in detail the various offices he held during the war, where all his labors were active, energetic, and sagacious, but pass directly to the winter of 1778, when he first took his seat in the Continental Congress. "He had now," says Mr. Sparks, "been nearly three years in public life, and he entered Congress with a reputation for talents, general intelligence, zeal, and activity in business, probably not surpassed by that of any other person of his age in the country, being not yet twenty-six years old." Here he manifested the same unremitting industry, the same learning, zeal, and forecast that had already given him weight and consideration in the community. On the very day of taking his seat he was appointed on the committee that was directed to proceed to the head-quarters of the American army, and consult with the commander-in-chief upon the best means of putting the army on a good footing for the next campaign. Our readers will recollect that this was at the most disastrous period of the American war. The troops after the long and almost disheartening campaign of 1777, were in winter-quarters at Valley Forge, suffering from the want of food and clothing, and from exposure to the severities of the winter. The regiments were fast wearing away under the wretched system of short enlistments, and the army in general was badly organized from the circumstance that so much of its detail was necessarily entrusted to subordinate officers, who were not possessed of the requisite skill or experience. Morris, with the other members of the committee, repaired to the camp, and remained there nearly three months, and at that time formed an intimate friendship with General Washington, that ever after continued warm and unwavering. General Washington laid before the com-

mittee a full account of the condition of the army "pointing out the disorders and deficiencies together with their causes, and suggesting in detail such reforms and improvements as he considered essential to put the military establishment on a respectable footing." The plan of Washington, luminous, comprehensive, and minute, embracing not merely *the military arrangement, but the entire economy of the army*, was adopted by the committee, and made the basis of their report, which was approved by Congress. Washington was also very anxious that some *permanent* provision should be made for the officers of the army by the nation; not on his own account, for every one knows that he declined receiving any compensation beyond the mere payment of his expenses during the war, but because of the deep interest he felt in the army, and the desire he had that it should be commanded by faithful and competent men. Morris entered fully into the views which extended to half-pay for life, and urged them, but unsuccessfully, in Congress; and all that could be obtained was a pitiful vote "that the half-pay to officers should continue only seven years, and that each non-commissioned officer and soldier who remained in the army till the end of the war should receive a reward of eighty dollars." Soon after his return to Congress from Valley Forge, he prepared a very long report upon the actual state of public affairs, and took up the subject of the finances and the great waste in disbursing the public money. "It is," says Mr. Sparks, "a remarkable evidence of his industry, close observation, and the minute knowledge he had acquired of the proceedings in all the civil and military branches of the government."

A highly important service rendered by Morris while in Congress, and the one considered as the most important by Mr. Sparks, was that rendered by him as one of the committee to meet the British commissioners, the bearers of Lord North's celebrated conciliatory propositions. The eyes of the British ministry were a little opened to the difficulty of subjugating the colonies after the bad success of Burgoyne and Clinton, and the "empty victories" of Howe. The ministry were willing to give up the old claim to a right of *taxation*, and authorized the commissioners to treat on all the questions in dispute; and two bills were introduced in Parliament in pursuance of this object. In Congress these bills

were referred to a committee consisting of Morris, Drayton, and Dana. The report was drawn up by Morris, and was unanimously adopted by Congress. The committee saw nothing in the bills but an insidious design, under the specious pretence of conciliation, to divide the country and injure the cause of liberty; and further reported that Congress ought not to treat with Great Britain, "unless, as a preliminary, the British fleets and armies should be withdrawn, and the independence of the *United States acknowledged in express and positive terms*. This last was the same preliminary that Mr. Jay, one of our commissioners, that concluded the treaty of peace with Great Britain at the close of the war, required, before he would consent to treat, and which, by perseverance in his resolution, he finally succeeded in obtaining.

Lord North's commissioners made the matter worse in their first letter to Congress, by venturing upon some reflections on the conduct of France in joining the United States. This of course was highly offensive, and it was some time before Congress would condescend to take notice of the letter. But at length, when an answer was given, it was much to the same effect as the report of Morris, with the addition that no treaty of peace could be made without the assent of France.

"In the management of the business in Congress, and in the views of the subject which went abroad, and made impressions on the public, Mr. Morris must be considered as having a chief share. He penned the reports and resolves, that were from time to time issued; and when the matter was brought to a close, he drew up, as one of a committee appointed for the purpose, a sketch of the whole proceedings, which was published. This performance was entitled '*Observations on the American Revolution*,' and extended to a hundred and twenty-two closely printed pages. In addition to an account of the doings of Congress, in regard to the Commissioners, there is a condensed and well written introduction, containing an outline of the causes of the war, the means used by the Americans to avert it, their unavailing efforts to secure a recognition of their rights, and the chief events that had hitherto occurred. The whole was executed with address and ability, manifesting a deep knowledge of the principles and reasons on which the contest was founded, and an ardor of patriotism not surpassed in any writings of the day." pp. 187, 188.

Among other prominent subjects to which Morris devoted much time, while in Congress, may be mentioned the important instructions prepared by him in behalf of Congress to be sent to Dr. Franklin, our Minister in Paris, and the first instructions that "had ever been sent to an American Minister Plenipotentiary at a foreign court." We may also add the report from his pen, in February, 1779, on the subject of the terms of peace. This report was the basis of the peace as subsequently concluded, and "embraced all the points then deemed essential or advisable to be urged in a treaty with England, when the time for such an arrangement should arrive." In the debate that ensued, Morris took a distinguished and leading part; and was appointed to draw up the instructions to our ministers, embodying its results. He also entered the lists warmly in defence of that much injured man, Silas Deane, who was far from deserving the harsh treatment he received from Congress, and from numerous bitter enemies throughout the country.

Notwithstanding his invaluable services, Morris was dropped from Congress in 1780. We are not informed from history what was the occasion of this apparent fickleness in the legislature of New York. But tradition assigns as the reason, that "he neglected the concerns of the State and gave himself too much to the business and politics of the nation." Mr. Sparks treats this charge, and very properly, as a *frivolous pretext*. But it is probably true, that New York was somewhat dissatisfied because he was unwilling to go all lengths with that state in forcing Vermont to submit to her jurisdiction. The controversy between New York and New Hampshire in relation to the territory, now Vermont, had lasted many years, and had assumed a very angry and threatening aspect. Vermont insisted on coming into the Union as an independent state. New York would not allow her claim, and Morris clearly saw that his state must quietly give up the point or else insist upon fighting "the Green Mountain boys." It was folly and worse than folly to think of being empaled on this latter horn of the dilemma, and Morris therefore, as we have reason to suppose, was on the whole of opinion that New York had better relinquish her claim with what grace she might. And for this measure of peace and necessity he, "the observed of all observers," was banished from the halls of Congress.

In 1781, he was appointed by Robert Morris, the celebrated financier, his assistant in the office of Secretary of Finance. In this department for three years and a half he labored most assiduously, in connexion with the Secretary, to restore the finances of the nation to a comparatively sound and healthy state. To say that they managed well is but faint praise; they managed *wonderfully* well, considering their means and the circumstances of the country. To their exertions is due the establishment of the Bank of North America, which was of vast service in their financial schemes.

Judge Johnson, in his quarto "Life of General Greene," charges Morris with being a monarchist, and also with having written those inflammatory productions so well known as the *Newburgh Letters*. As to the Letters it is idle at this day to say any more than that they were written by Armstrong, whose acknowledgment of the fact destroys the feeble argument of the accuser, an argument that was never entitled even to the questionable merit of plausibility. As to the charge of being a monarchist, Mr. Sparks repels it with abundant success in a very few words; and we will add only, that while such charges are easily made by demagogues, and are now become quite stale with all decent people, we feel somewhat surprised that so grave a gentleman as the biographer of Greene should stoop to take them up, and give them credence, and publish them to the world. The fame of Morris is precious; it belongs to the country; and whoever unjustly assails it should "stifle in his own report, and smell of calumny."

Every subject that Morris undertook, he managed with talent and skill. In 1783 he wrote forcibly on the matter of the West India trade, and in opposition to the policy of restrictive regulations, both in regard to England and France. Recent events have given this subject no small share of interest. To Morris also belongs the entire praise of proposing the *money unit*, which was the foundation of a new plan for an American coinage, and was the *basis of the system afterwards adopted and now in use*. We regret that we have not room to enlarge upon this subject.

When Morris became Assistant Financier, he took up his residence in Philadelphia, and, as far as his other engagements permitted, resumed the practice of his profession. In 1787, he was chosen one of the delegates from Pennsylvania

to the Convention for forming the Constitution of the United States. That he was a zealous and industrious member of that body we should of course infer from the well known character of the man ; and in confirmation of this belief we will add the testimony of Mr. Madison, the only surviving member of the Convention, in his very interesting letter to Mr. Sparks, from which we make the following extracts. In speaking of Morris, he says,

"It may be justly said, that he was an able, an eloquent, and an active member, and shared largely in the discussions succeeding the 1st of July, previous to which, with the exception of a few of the early days, he was absent. . . . .

"The *finish* given to the style and arrangement of the Constitution fairly belongs to the pen of Mr. Morris ; the task, having, probably, been handed over to him by the chairman of the Committee, himself a highly respectable member, and with the ready concurrence of the others. A better choice could not have been made, as the performance of the task proved. It is true, that the state of the materials, consisting of a reported draft in detail, and subsequent resolutions accurately penned, and falling easily into their proper places, was a good preparation for the symmetry and phraseology of the instrument, but there was sufficient room for the talents and taste stamped by the author on the face of it. The alterations made by the Committee are not recollected. They were not such, as to impair the merit of the composition. Those, verbal and others, made in the Convention, may be gathered from the Journal, and will be found also to leave that merit altogether unimpaired. . . . .

"It is but due to Mr. Morris to remark, that, to the brilliancy of his genius, he added, what is too rare, a candid surrender of his opinions, when the lights of discussion satisfied him, that they had been too hastily formed, and a readiness to aid in making the best of measures in which he had been overruled." pp. 284 - 286.

While residing in Philadelphia, Gouverneur Morris had been concerned with Robert Morris in extensive mercantile operations. These had become not only very important, but somewhat intricate and perplexed, and it became necessary for the subject of this biography to visit Europe to attend to the affairs of the concern. He accordingly sailed in December, 1788, and reached Paris early in February following, at a period of great interest in the history of France. During

his residence in that country and in other parts of Europe, he kept a Diary, which, as a Diary should be, is very easy, spirited, and interesting, and contains a fund of information, as to individual characters, public measures, and successive adventures. His observations from time to time on the progress of the French Revolution, are in general marked with great good sense and wide forecast. In the winter of 1790, he was appointed by General Washington private agent to proceed to England and transact important business of national concern with the British ministry. The subject of his commission met with prompt attention on his part, and he pursued it with earnestness and zeal, and paved the way, so far as individual exertions and the circumstances of the times would permit, for the subsequent successful negotiation, by Mr. Jay, of the commercial treaty of 1794.

While in France as a private individual, Morris took a deep interest in the political affairs of that nation. As a friend to good government he deprecated the excesses of the Revolution, and was very bold and free in his remarks to the leading politicians on both sides. He was above all concealment, and would neither compromise truth nor his own opinions. Hence, when his advice was sought, as it frequently was, he disdained all disguise or evasion. A republic he knew was adapted to the genius of his own country; but for France, *mercurial* France, as she then was, the spirit of that form of government was not well suited. It was with the French a beautiful day-dream, and not as with us a real, living, practical principle of light and liberty. Morris, with prophetic accuracy, foretold the result, and often repeated his conviction that on the breaking down of the ancient dynasty a military despotism would soon rise upon its ruins. These opinions rendered him popular with the aristocratic party, and equally perhaps an object of dislike with the friends of the revolution. After his appointment as Minister Plenipotentiary to the French Court in 1792, as successor to Mr. Jefferson, it is due to him to say, that he abstained entirely from taking side with either party in that distracted country, and conducted himself with great prudence, firmness, and dignity.

The situation in which he was placed was full of difficulties and embarrassments. The authority of the king was suspended in a few months after Morris was appointed min-

ister, and within a year the unhappy monarch was put to death by his subjects. The new government, if such it may be called, was continually shifting, and one set of ruffians brought to the guillotine by another set more ferocious, if possible, than the former, and soon to yield to successors of the same abandoned principles and character. Amid these creatures, Morris had to sustain the honor and dignity of his country, to resist their depredations upon our commerce, defend our imprisoned citizens, and compel, so far as was practicable, the faithful execution of treaties. The task was ungracious and difficult; but he did not shrink from it; and although after the death of the king all the other ambassadors from foreign powers quitted the country, and he was urgently entreated to do the same, he resolutely determined to remain, and execute his official functions to the extent of his power. He continually met with vexations and annoyances from the subordinate agents of the revolutionary government, and even the sanctity of his house was invaded. Previous to this he had received an insulting letter from Lebrun, the Minister of Foreign Affairs. His reply was firm, but calm and judicious, and closes by requesting his passport, since the style of the Minister's letter was such as not to warrant his longer remaining in Paris. Lebrun, however, fearing to offend the government of the United States, the only remaining friendly power, sent an apologetical letter to our ambassador, which induced him to remain in the country. Morris had the confidence of the king, who felt grateful for the friendly advice received from him, and in a time of great danger entrusted him with the care of his funds to a large amount. He was also active at that time, and at a subsequent period, when at Vienna, in his endeavours to obtain the release of Lafayette from the gloomy dungeons of the Emperor, where he had been confined in the most barbarous manner, contrary to the law of nations, and in outrage of the spirit of humanity. But we cannot give in greater detail an account of the various and indefatigable efforts of Morris, while he represented this nation in France. He was recalled in 1794, at the request of the French Ministry, not because any just exceptions were taken against him, for he was ever highly esteemed by Washington, but simply as an act of *national comity*, then more particularly to be observed toward France, as the notorious Genet, the French Minister to



this country, had been recalled at the request of Washington, having forfeited his character as a public minister in ways which are too well known to need any comment. We will only add the opinion of Mr. Sparks, with which we fully agree, as to the manner in which Morris performed his official duties as ambassador.

"That his opinions, and the bold manner in which he had expressed them on all occasions, were a serious obstacle to the successful exercise of his official duties, especially after the overthrow of the monarchy in France, and the triumph of the disorganizing factions, cannot be denied; but he is entitled to the full credit of caution and circumspection, and to the praise of maintaining with dignity and firmness the interests of his country, in circumstances extremely vexatious and trying. It may with truth be affirmed, that no American Minister abroad ever had a more difficult task to perform, or executed it, considering the situation in which he was placed, with more skill and ability.

"His official correspondence, while he was Minister to the French Court, was with Jefferson, then Secretary of State, and occasionally with Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury. To Washington he wrote constantly, as to a private friend, and presented a more detailed narrative of affairs, than was contained in his public despatches. It would be difficult to find, within the same compass, so full an account of the political progress and changes of the French Revolution for nearly five years, as may be gathered from his letters, private and official. He viewed the great panorama of passing events with a penetrating and comprehensive mind, and sketched what he saw in a style of bold and graphic accuracy. Allowance is to be made for the bias of his opinions, and his settled aversion to the principles of the revolutionists; but his judgment seldom deceived him, and his sincerity may always be relied on. His speculations are uttered as speculations, and may be distinguished as such. No one ever need confound them with the deliberate convictions of his understanding, his deductions from argument, or his statement of facts. Frankness, honesty, and a fearlessness in expressing his sentiments, were prominent features of his mind, and appear in all his writings." pp. 371, 372.

After the termination of his official functions, Morris travelled for several years in various parts of England, Scotland, Germany, Switzerland, &c., forming acquaintance with the

most distinguished public men, with nobles and kings, and returned to America in December, 1798, having been absent from his native country ten years. In the mean time political parties had here grown up, and become bitter. In his sentiments he was a decided Federalist, although he did not join in all the measures of the Federal party. Thus he preferred Jefferson to Burr in the angry contest for the presidency in the winter of 1801, and was very decidedly in favor of the Louisiana purchase, to which, as is well known, the Federalists were in general warmly opposed. But all the leading measures of that party met with his approbation, and had his earnest support. "There," says Mr. Sparks, "he took a stand, and there he maintained it to the end of his life, sometimes, perhaps, with a zeal that outstripped prudence, but always with an honesty of purpose, a fearlessness of responsibility, and an ingenuous, hearty good will, that commanded the respect of his opponents, and deserved from his friends and foes the praise of high-minded patriotism."

In 1800, Morris was chosen by the legislature of New York to supply a vacancy in the Senate of the United States. He remained in the Senate three years, when, by the change of political parties, he was superseded in office, and retired to private life.

"During the three years of Mr. Morris's service in the Senate of the United States, he was a strong pillar in the Federal party, thoroughly imbued with their policy and principles, and generally uniting in their acts. The occasions on which he made conspicuous efforts, were in the debates on the repeal of the internal taxes, on the judiciary establishment, and on Ross' resolutions for taking possession of New Orleans." pp. 480, 481.

These speeches, which have been preserved, would of themselves give us a high opinion of the ability and eloquence of Morris, were we without other testimony. His mind was evidently fertile in resources, and he grasped his subject with the power of a commanding and cultivated intellect, and with all the fervor of an ardent temperament. During the remainder of his life he resided at Morrisania as a private citizen. But he still kept up a lively interest in public affairs, and carefully scanned the progress of events. To him belongs "the splendid conception of connecting the vast

waters of Erie and the upper lakes, with those of the Atlantic through the channel of the Hudson." Others have their meed of praise in bringing forward and perfecting the scheme, but "*he was first to give shape and consistency to the thought, or make it known to the world.*" This Mr. Sparks fairly demonstrates. In the darkest period of the revolution it is well ascertained that Morris predicted "that at no very distant day the waters of the great inland seas would, by the aid of man, break through their barriers and mingle with those of the Hudson." And in 1795, 1801, 1803, &c., he urged, over and over again, the practicability of this plan, and impressed upon others a sense of its importance. From 1810 till his death in November, 1816, he was chairman of the Board of Canal Commissioners, and three of the four reports made by them, within that period, to the legislature of New York, were drawn up by him. Nor was this all.

"During the six last years of Mr. Morris's life, his thoughts and his time were incessantly occupied with this business of the Erie Canal, not more in discharging his duties as a commissioner to their full extent, than in devising preliminary and incidental means for advancing the enterprise. He sought knowledge from able and skilful engineers, from the results of long experiments in other countries, from the aids of science, and from personal observation. He examined minutely all the surveys, that were made from time to time, entered into complicated calculations on the motion, pressure, absorption, and evaporation of water, as depending on the quality of the soil and position of the canal route; he formed estimates, not less complicated and difficult, respecting the cost of excavations, embankments, aqueducts, and lockage; in short, there were no details, which he did not thoroughly investigate, and subject to the scrutiny of his judgment. His two first reports to the legislature are very able documents, indicating at the same time a profound knowledge of the subject, and an uncommon enlargement of mind and foresight. Mr. Bleeker has well and truly observed, that 'what he then prophesied is now become history.' His remarks on the internal commerce of the United States, as connected with the Atlantic and with Canada, and as ultimately affecting our national improvement and prosperity, are the dictates of wisdom, the fruits of a laborious inquiry concerning the physical structure and resources of the country, and of a deep search into the causes, which carry for-

ward the intercourse, growth, and refinement of society." pp. 502, 503.

Mr. Sparks has inserted in the latter part of the first volume, extracts from a Sketch of Morris's character drawn by Madame de Damas, a French lady, who was well acquainted with him. The Sketch is felicitous in delineating his prominent characteristics, and unites accuracy with delicate discrimination. It is, indeed, somewhat overcharged in the manner of its execution,—embellished according to the taste and habit of the French, especially of the French ladies. But we believe it to be in substance correct, and that all that is said of him is true, although we might not subscribe to the *manner* in which it is told.

The second and third volumes contain selections from his correspondence, diplomatic and private, while in Europe, and after his return to this country. The private correspondence embraces letters to a great variety of distinguished persons, nobles, gentles, and ladies, in England and on the Continent, and to many of the leading men in the United States. His letters while in France, and his Diary for that period, constitute a valuable history of the Revolution, narrated in a flowing, though occasionally in a careless style. His private letters do equal credit to his understanding and affections, and are on the whole very good specimens of epistolary skill.

Mr. Sparks has raised the general estimate of the character of Gouverneur Morris, simply because he has made it better known. There are but few among us who are intimately acquainted with that part of our revolutionary history, which is contained in the lives and actions of the leading men of that period. The amount of knowledge that most possess, is confined to prominent events in the war, and to the recollection that such and such individuals commanded in the army or gained distinction in the cabinet; but does not extend to that minute and quickening information, which well-wrought biography so fully yields. Morris, by his letters, Diary, and speeches has left a monument of his own industry, and has established an enduring fame. His prevailing fault was "a forwardness of manner, a licence of expression, and an indulgence of his humor" at the expense of others, which sometimes annoyed his friends and doubtless made him many enemies. But this arose not from any malevolence in his nature, but rather from a consciousness of his

own intellectual strength, and that pride of opinion and quick perception of the ridiculous that marked his character; while his good qualities far outweighed this defect. He possessed prompt discernment, an open and ingenuous disposition, great political wisdom and sagacity, and the power of accomplishing, and accomplishing well, whatever depended upon the operations of his own mind. And to his other resources was added a facility in bringing to his aid whatever might illustrate or adorn the subject in hand. History and patient investigation and close observation had given him an intimate knowledge of man, and made him wise to discern the future, and advise well for the immediate occasion. If he sometimes erred in opinion, it was honest error, and he was too ingenuous not to correct it when convinced of its existence. We like his open, honorable, and direct course. If sometimes it led him into difficulty, and gave the sting to enmity, it was on the whole advantageous; and we would that there were more such politicians, who would "speak right on," and not be guilty of tortuous conduct and disguise.

Mr. Sparks has made a very interesting volume of biography, and has, we think, done full justice to the subject. It has been objected by some that the work is too large. Perhaps here and there the materials might have been a little more condensed; but we do not think that much could have been done in this way without injuring the texture of the whole. The biography is contained in one volume, and only so much of general history is introduced as is necessary to place the character of Morris in prominent relief. The biographer's own comments and reflections are brief and to the purpose. The extracts from the Diary we would not willingly spare; and as to the letters which fill the second and third volumes, they are such pleasing illustrations of the qualities both of the head and heart of the writer, that we would rather demand a greater number than be deprived of the present supply. It is important, we think, to the history of our country in its most eventful era, that the lives of the great men of our revolution should be given to us in full; and where materials are so ample and valuable as in the work we have described, we hope there will be equal liberality in the use.

We have only to add, that while the general appearance of these volumes in type and paper is good, we regret that

the press has not been corrected with more care. The typographical errors are too numerous for a work of this character.

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ART. X. — *Biography of Self-Taught Men, with an Introductory Essay.* By B. B. EDWARDS. Boston. Perkins & Marvin. 1832. 12mo. pp. 312.

THIS little volume consists of short biographical sketches of individuals who mainly by their own unaided efforts, and often in the most unfavorable circumstances, have risen to eminence in learning, or science, or successful action. The Introductory Essay which precedes these narratives is written with good sense and ability, and contains many just and striking views of the intellectual and moral condition and wants of our country. The topics touched upon are of the highest importance; and though only brief suggestions are made, they are evidently the fruit of enlightened and comprehensive reflection; while the pure moral tone and earnest patriotism which pervade the whole are highly creditable to the writer's heart. These suggestions relate to the danger of innovation and rapid change, — the importance of a more fervent and general coöperation of the friends of intelligence and sound principles, — the religious aspect of questions of political economy, — the immense importance of preserving the due ascendancy of mind over matter, — and the formation of a national Christian literature. In connexion with these suggestions and for accomplishing the conditions on which our national well-being is suspended, the author places great reliance upon that class of young men among us, who feel the thirst for knowledge and the impulse to high exertion, but who, little friended by circumstances, are obliged to work out their way to knowledge and usefulness by their own energy. The Essay is chiefly taken up in describing the characteristic excellences and defects of minds thus formed. Then follow the biographical sketches which are intended to afford direction and encouragement to such as are thus obliged to rely upon their own exertions, and to contend with difficulties. And as the book is designed for young men of this country, it is not only gratifying, but perhaps the incitement will be the more quickening, that of the thirty-

three sketches which the volume contains, the Editor has found subjects for thirteen in our own land, — examples too, especially such as Sherman, Rittenhouse, Huntington, and King, so worthy to be studied and followed. We think the work is likely to be acceptable and useful to those for whom it was intended. Example affords not only the most compendious instruction, but also the most awakening and sustaining motive to action. When we see what man has done, and how it was done, we feel more strongly what man can do ; and Faith springs up, Purpose becomes more lofty and resolved, Hope is animated, and thereof Power is born, which had else lain dormant for ever. For Faith is the parent of Power, and in a wider than the common interpretation, does it overcome the world, removing mountains and working wonders. Narratives like these strikingly illustrate the force of application in overcoming almost every conceivable obstacle. They prove how independent we really are, if we choose to be, of those outward circumstances, which to the aspiring but feeble, to the indolent or irresolute, seem to make such a difference between man and man, and without the aid of which the avenues to learning or eminent usefulness seem impassably barred up. They exhibit the power of lofty determination and untiring perseverance. They show how, under the Providence of God, obstacles of every sort and size are made to give way, or minister to the unconquerable will, that does not falter in its purpose, nor relax its struggle. They show what may be done by labor. They inculcate the salutary lesson that the secret of success is hard work ; that nothing greatly good and noble can be achieved without it. They speak with a stirring voice to the spirit of the young : What will you be ? What will you do ? Have an object in life, — have some distinct and definite aim. Live for something ; let it be something worth living for ; and for that be willing to labor with the whole energy of your being. And they teach every one who feels in himself the thirst for knowledge, or the impulse to high exertion, that however unfriended he may be by outward circumstances, he never need despair of achieving a measure of success worth having lived for, if only he will make the very utmost of the possibilities of his actual condition, if he will fix his eye steadfastly on his object, pursuing it through evil report and through good report with unwavering constancy

of purpose and unrelaxing rigor of exertion. In short, they are calculated to enkindle a noble ardor, and to direct it on the high road to success.

We are inclined to think, however, that in preparing this volume, the writer would have better attained his object if the sketches had been fewer in number and more minute and full. The quickening influence of such a work does not depend so much on the number of illustrious names that are set down in it with the registered result of their labors, as on the full and vivid picture of the individual presented in the progress of his inward and outward life, as he pursues his way to knowledge and usefulness through poverty and friendlessness and every obstacle. Thus the reader is brought into intimacy with a noble spirit. It becomes a living example, exciting the keenest sympathy, and inspiring a kindred ardor. We should have preferred, therefore, that several of the narratives of individuals who are either less distinguished, or the materials for whose lives are more scanty, had been omitted in order to give room for a fuller portraiture of such men as Heyne, Alexander Murray, and Gifford.

In regard to the style we might find matter of criticism. There is, particularly in the *Essay*, a too frequent occurrence of short sentences, without any thing new or important requiring an emphatic annunciation. Five or six of the shortest sentences not unfrequently occur in succession, which contain but little more than a bare reiteration of the same thought in a different form, or certainly are without any proportionable variation and progress of thought, and which would much more properly have been wrought together as members of one period. One is reminded of what Coleridge says of sentences made for asthmatic lungs to read, and for men of asthmatic intellects to understand. Mr. Edwards's style in this particular is evidently formed on a vicious system, which, as well as another fault that struck us, namely, an occasional ambitiousness of thought and language, we should be glad to see corrected; for we have a high respect for Mr. Edwards's ability and for the lofty and earnest spirit by which he is actuated. Though he has made a useful book, we think he can make a better; and we hope that he will go on in his efforts to excite our young men to the love of learning and of honorable and useful exertion.



ART. XI. — *Precedents of Indictments; to which is prefixed a Concise Treatise upon the Office and Duty of Grand Jurors.* By DANIEL DAVIS, Solicitor General of Massachusetts. Boston. Carter, Hendee, & Babcock. 1831. 8vo. pp. 319.

THIS volume contains, besides a short treatise upon the Office and Duty of Grand Jurors, three hundred and forty-four Precedents of Indictments; the form of an Information; several forms of Informations *quo warranto*; the form of a writ of Certiorari, of a writ of Error, of a writ of Habeas Corpus, and of several pleas in criminal cases. These forms are accompanied with many short notes at the bottom of the pages.

In his "Treatise upon the Office and Duty of Grand Jurors," our author tells us, that the institution of grand jurors is one of the most ancient which we derive from our English ancestors. It is known to have existed for nearly a thousand years. In relation to this institution Mr. Davis says, "From long experience and observation it may be safely asserted, that [there has been] no body of men, designated to exercise important powers and functions connected with the judicial department of our government, [who] have been more respected, or concerning whom the public opinion has uniformly been more favorable, than the grand jurors selected and organized according to the laws and usages of our happy country."

This subject is divided and considered under the following heads:

"*First.* Their number and qualifications, as required by law.

"*Secondly.* The mode of selecting and summoning them.

"*Thirdly.* The course of proceeding after their appearance in court. Their oath; its nature and obligations.

"*Fourthly.* The right of challenging grand jurors, and the right of the court to instruct them as to the principles of evidence.

"*Fifthly.* The mode of proceeding, after the grand jury are organized.

"*Sixthly.* The nature of the evidence to be submitted to them, and the principles and grounds upon which it is to be received and decided upon by them.

"*Seventhly.* The right of the grand jury to compel the attendance of witnesses. The finding of the bills, &c.

"*Eighthly.* The amendment of indictments by the order of court, and the consent of the grand jury." p. 4.

The remarks under each of these heads are pertinent. And the information communicated, or at least much of it, is such as could not come from any one who had not spent his life as a public prosecutor. It must be highly useful to the public.

But the work is chiefly made up of *Precedents of Indictments*.

"The volume is intended," says the author, "to furnish a more extensive and complete collection of precedents of indictments, than has hitherto been contained in any *one work* upon that subject; and to reduce them to as great a degree of conciseness and simplicity as may be consistent with their correctness and validity. In the forms herein contained, the obsolete language; the ancient but unnecessary technical phrases; and the superfluous prefatory allegations and averments, which are still retained in the English and American collections, have been rejected." p. iii.

We have looked over these forms, and can bear testimony to the truth of this remark as a general one; but we apprehend that even in this volume there are many precedents containing superfluous words and unnecessary averments.

In the very first precedent in the book the author rejects the words "force and arms"; and in a note refers to Hawkins and Hale as authorities for so doing. In another note he refers to the same writers to show that the word "dignity" at the close of the precedent may be omitted; and yet it is retained in that as well as in most of the other precedents. Why retain one and reject the other when the same authorities apply to both with equal force.

In No. 39, which is a precedent "for an assault not accompanied with a battery," the person upon whom the assault is alleged to have been committed is said to be "in the peace of the said Commonwealth." And yet, in the note, many authorities are cited to show that these words, "in the peace of the said Commonwealth then and there being," are wholly unnecessary. These words are also retained in Nos. 40 and 41. But in No. 42, which like the three former precedents is upon the subject of assaults, and "for an assault and beating out an eye," these words, "in

the peace," &c. are omitted, but in that precedent the person who is alleged to have made the assault is said "to be of a depraved and malicious disposition."

In No. 43, which is "for an assault and tearing the hair off prosecutor's head," the person who makes the assault is not alleged to be of "a depraved and malicious disposition," but he upon whom it is made is said to be "in the peace of the Commonwealth."

According to these precedents, therefore, it would seem that when an eye is beat out, we need not allege that the prosecutor was in the peace of the Commonwealth, but must aver that the assailant is of a depraved and malicious disposition; but when the prosecutor's hair is torn off his head, he must allege that he was in the peace of the Commonwealth, but need say nothing of the disposition of the assailant. To justify this distinction the Solicitor ought to have cited, and must, we think, have relied upon the maxim, that "the law is as nice as a new laid egg."

We merely refer to the following precedents, as containing more or less superfluous matter, viz. Nos. 135, 136, 178, 179, 180, 181, 182, 183. Our author in his prefatory remarks says, "It seems singular that the best and most modern compilers of these precedents should retain allegations and averments, so long since exploded; and, at the same time, carefully note the authorities by which they have been decided to be unnecessary and superfluous." And he happily adds, "there is no better reason for retaining the obsolete, and, in some instances, it may be said the exploded language found in the ancient forms in criminal processes, than there would be in retaining the costume of the age in which it was first adopted." There can be no doubt that the precedents in this volume are very much improved in this particular, but some of them are not perfect; and not so perfect as they would have been, if the author had adhered more strictly to his own rule. We are reminded of the answer of a lawyer, who, when inquired of by a lady why a certain brother of his profession left it for theology, said, he found it easier to preach than to practise.

It cannot be denied, however, that the value of these precedents is very much increased by the notes which are very numerous, though generally very short, in which the author informs the public whether the precedent was original with

him, or taken from some other book. He gives the authorities by which it is supported, and frequently refers to cases in which it has been used ; and if founded upon a statute, he refers to the statute, chapter, and section.

We should think nearly half the precedents in this volume are founded upon the statutes of Massachusetts. Very nearly all of them were drawn by Mr. Davis himself in the discharge of his official duty. He no doubt availed himself of such aids as the books containing precedents upon similar subjects would afford ; but they could not have been drawn without a good deal of labor, and they are generally much better forms than those borrowed from other authors.

No. 152, and the fifteen following precedents, are drawn upon the "statute against forgery and counterfeiting." These forms, with the notes, are the most valuable commentary which can be found, and better than any man, who had not for a long time been a public prosecutor, could make, upon that highly important statute.

Besides the precedents of indictments, this volume contains "a form of an information in a criminal case," with the suggestion in a note, that "there is no variance in the general form of an information in criminal cases ;" and having the formal part, which is always the same, nothing is necessary but to turn to the precedents of indictments, and take the allegations and descriptions of the offence you are about to prosecute, and transfer them into the information.

In the note above alluded to are to be found the following remarks upon the subject of informations, which are certainly worth much consideration.

"This mode of prosecuting crimes is not, in my apprehension, either congenial or consistent with the nature of our government and institutions. If the practice were restricted to corporations, it might not be objectionable. But if it were extended here, either in law or practice, as it is in England, to every species of crime excepting treason, misprision of treason, and felony, the protection of the innocent from groundless and malicious prosecutions, which we think we derive from the institution of grand juries, might be endangered. The instructions which are given by our judges in their charges to the grand jury to accuse no one without full and satisfactory evidence of his guilt, is one of the most admirable features in the administration of public justice. The institution of grand

juries has existed in England for nearly a thousand years, and in this country ever since its settlement.

"The power of the attorney general in England, in regard to the prosecution of crimes by information, would be viewed with great jealousy in this country. He is the sole judge of what public misdemeanors he will prosecute. 1 Chitt. 845; 4 M. Com. 312, Bac. Abr. *Information, A.* He may file an information against any one whom he thinks proper to select, without oath, without motion, or opportunity for the defendant to show cause against the proceedings. *Id.* Ibid. Nor is he in any case liable to an action for a groundless or malicious prosecution. 1 Chitt. 846; 1 T. R. 514, 535. So independent is his authority, that the court will not quash his information on the motion of the defendant; but will compel him to plead or demur. 1 Salk. 372; Bac. Abr. *Information, A.*; 1 Chitt. 847. The information, being a mere assertion of the officer who files it, may be amended at any time before trial, without the consent of the defendant. These amendments may be very extensive and material; counts may be struck out, and new ones inserted. 1 Chitt. 868; 4 Burr. 2528. Power to this extent, concentrated in a single individual, and that individual not only the officer, but the *minister of the government* which he serves, would not be endured in this country.

"What is the extent of the power of a public prosecutor under our constitution of government, has never, to my knowledge, been tested.

"There is a general rule stated in 5 Mass. R. 257, which is to this effect: 'that *all public misdemeanors* which may be prosecuted by indictment, may be prosecuted by information, in behalf of the Commonwealth; unless the prosecution be restrained by the statute to indictment.' There may be such a rule; but I confess I have never met with it in the course of long official experience; and if it exists, I should doubt its applicability to the principles and policy of our government." pp. 265, 266.

The book also contains several forms for informations *quo warranto*, writ of Certiorari, Error, Habeas Corpus, forms of several pleas, and other proceedings in criminal matters.

Even in looking over this book of forms we are reminded of several events in which the public at the time they happened took a deep interest.

The form No. 283 was taken from the indictment used in the case of the far-famed Captain Kidd and his crew, who were tried for piracy.

No. 326 is taken from the indictment used against Aaron Burr for treason against the United States.

No. 220 is said to be the substance of the indictment against Theodore Lyman, Esq. for an alleged libel against Mr. Webster.

And in different parts of the book, under their appropriate heads, we have all the forms prepared, some of which were used, in the cases against the Knapps and Crowninshields for the murder of Captain White at Salem, in 1830.

After a careful perusal of this book, we feel no hesitation in saying, that we know of no volume of equal size in which a lawyer can find more useful information, or one on which he can more safely rely in practice. The author says, "This work in the result of his official experience, acquired under the advice and correction of distinguished judges and professional friends."

Mr. Davis has been well known as Solicitor General in Massachusetts for more than thirty years,—and during that whole period has been distinguished no less for the accuracy of his learning and the extent of his researches, than for the elegance of his address, and the eloquence of his appeals.

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ART. XII.—*An Introduction to the Natural System of Botany; or a Systematic View of the Organization, Natural Affinities, and Geographical Distribution of the whole Vegetable Kingdom; together with the Uses of the most important species in Medicine, the Arts, and Rural or Domestic Economy.* By JOHN LINDLEY, F. R. S., L. S., G. S., &c., and Professor of Botany in the University of London. First American Edition, with an *Appendix*. By JOHN TORREY, M. D., Professor of Chemistry and Botany in the College of Physicians and Surgeons in the City of New York, &c. New York. G. & C. & H. Carvill. 1831. 8vo. pp. 393.

WE are glad to see an American edition of this work, which, with the useful additions made to it by the editor, will greatly promote the cultivation of Botanical science in this country. The Linnæan system, it is true, has hitherto been and will probably continue to be found convenient to the beginner in learning the names; but till this time there has been no comprehensive manual, in our language, detailing the natural relations and qualities of plants.

Professor Torrey has enhanced the value of the work by prefixing to it "an outline of the first principles of Botany," by Professor Lindley, and by annexing "a Catalogue of the North American Genera of Plants arranged according to the Orders of Lindley's Introduction, with the number of species belonging to each genus as far as they are at present determined." The latter, with some tables, an alphabetical list of North American flowering plants, and certain additions inserted in the body of the work, constitute the portions for which we are indebted to Professor Torrey.

While we acknowledge the great merit of the two works of Professor Lindley, now combined in the American edition, and are fully sensible of the advantage to be obtained from the additions made to it by Professor Torrey, we regret to find so many errors of the press, and, still more, are we surprised that a uniformity in the names of the divisions has not been preserved. Thus, what, in the "artificial analysis," are called *Orders*, are, in the body of the work, denominated *Tribes*. Though the name of the division is but of little consequence provided it be uniformly adopted and retained, still we should prefer to call these natural groups *Families*, and refer the titles *Tribes* and *Orders* to the larger, and, as we think, less natural groups.

Our objections, however, are not such as to prevent us from recommending this work to all who are desirous of attaining a knowledge of the organization and nature of plants; and we would add, that such a work is indispensable to the American botanist.

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ART. XIII. — *The French First Class Book, being a new Selection of Reading Lessons: In Four Parts, viz.*  
1. *Authentic Pieces in Prose.* 2. *Prose Comedies of Molière, abridged.* 3. *Choice Pieces in Verse.* 4. *Abridged Dramas and Scenes in Verse.* The whole calculated to interest as well as improve the Learner.  
By WILLIAM B. FOWLE, Principal of the Monitorial School. Boston. Crocker & Brewster. 1832. 12mo. pp. 288.

WE have no hesitation in recommending this book, to all who are giving instruction, whether to children or to those of

mature minds, in the French tongue. We have made proof of it, and found it well suited to both the ends which the compiler had in view, the gratification and the improvement of the learner. Something like it has been much wanted. We have tried such stories as Florian's; but never found that they engaged strongly the attention of the pupil, nor could we wonder that they did not. *Télémaque* has been again and again prepared for the use of beginners. But to go through with it is after all a heavy undertaking, and the book sadly wants variety. The *Ami des Enfants* of Berquin is indeed excellent, and may be used with great advantage. But it is not suited perfectly to all classes of readers; its best things have become familiar to children through translation; most of its pieces are too long, and they are too uniform in style. We were in need of a miscellaneous work like the one before us. Mr. Fowle has accomplished the task, it appears to us, extremely well; with great diligence and in good taste. He has made his selections from a wide range of authors, and so judiciously that they are not tedious either from their length or want of vigor. The book is singularly distinguished throughout by its sprightliness. To this pleasant quality,—and useful one, we may add,—the compiler has in no small degree contributed by the freedom and point of the English titles, which he has prefixed to each piece. We speak in this language of hearty commendation, because we feel sure that Mr. Fowle has here done the public a good service.

We could wish that more pains had been bestowed on the proof sheets. The utmost accuracy is required in books for learners, especially when the words are foreign. We should not think so much of a letter here and there misplaced or omitted. But the negligence becomes serious, when the "conversion" of Socrates is spoken of instead of his "conservation," which we suppose must be the true reading, at page 59. The errors will be corrected, we trust, in another edition.



ART. XIV.—*The North American Arithmetic. Part Second. Uniting Oral and Written Exercises in corresponding Chapters.* By FREDERICK EMERSON. Boston. Lincoln & Edmands. 1832. 12mo. pp. 190.

THIS is the second of a series of books in which Arithmetic is designed to be taught, chiefly upon the inductive method of instruction. "Part First" has been published some years; "Part Third," our author tells us, will appear in the course of a few months.

The teaching of Arithmetic *orally*, or without the use of the slate, has, for a considerable number of years, been successfully practised in very many of our schools, both public and private, and has now grown into general favor. The portion of Mr. Emerson's "Second Part," intended to be so taught, differs so little from a system that has been long before the public, that we cannot think the want of it could have been very painfully felt.

The explanation of arithmetical truths by means of "cuts" is claimed as an original invention. If so, with such little temptation as it must offer, we hope that "compilers" will give heed either to the "laws of the land," the eighth commandment, or Mr. Emerson's admonition, and do him no wrong.

The "Written Arithmetic" contains about an equal number of pages with the "Oral," and corresponds to it in its topics and arrangement, but without reference from the one to the other. The questions for solution in this part, and indeed, in the whole work, are taken more generally from matters with which the learner is or should be acquainted, than in any other similar work which we have met with. Upon the whole, Mr. Emerson's Arithmetic seems to have been prepared with a good deal of care and pains-taking, and is neatly published; but we do not find in it any sufficient apology for adding his voice to the loud pretensions, so often made, and so patiently acquiesced in, to the merit of novelty, discovery, or invention.

ART. XV. — *An Only Son. A Narrative.* By the Author of "My Early Days." Boston. Leonard C. Bowles. 1832.

"AN Only Son" is a tale of remarkable interest; and is told by the hero himself, with the same tasteful ease and gracefulness which charm us in "My Early Days." The design may be gathered from one of the closing paragraphs of the volume.

"If I have freely interpreted conventional terms, — if I have said that the laurels of war tarnish the brow they encircle, — my heart justifies my motives, and History embodies my defence."

In the course of the narrative the rash anticipations of youthful ardor, checked by sad experience, are depicted by a powerful hand. The "pomp and circumstance of war," which present so charming a prospect to the youthful imagination, are found to be little else than the dull routine of camp duty, and the heart-rending scenes of havoc and bloodshed. After passing through a variety of incidents; a duel in which he killed one who had ever been his dearest friend; and numberless sieges and battles, the hero returns to his desolate home, which he had left by stealth, overwhelmed with remorse and sick at heart. "Grievous," he says, "is the guilt of filial ingratitude and the shedding of blood."

The work abounds in excellent remarks on the faults of education, the crimes and cruelty of war, the hollowness of the soldier's fame, and on several odious and absurd practices which have had their origin in false estimates of honor.

Both of the tales may be read with equal pleasure and profit by the young and the old. Children will be delighted with the adventures described, and made better by the moral lessons conveyed with great ingenuity and force. Those who have passed their "early days," and who may be said to live more in memory than in hope, will admire them for the tender recollections which they are fitted to raise in the mind, and meanwhile will have their affections purified by dwelling on the simplicity and innocence of childhood.

# LIST OF BOOKS PUBLISHED AND IN PRESS,

FOR MAY, 1832.

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*Carey & Lea, Philadelphia.*

Renwick's Treatise on Mechanics. 8vo.  
White's Natural History of Selborne. 18mo.

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